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CHAPTER VII.

APPENDICES.

CHAPTER I.

The Long Lane.

It is trite and commonplace to speak of the importance of a properly devised educational system; and it is equally common knowledge that the defects of an educational system react disastrously on the progress of a community. It has been our task, after an investigation of the activities at work in the English country-side, to examine again the position of education in the rural areas of the Punjab. The problems which have been placed before us are of vital importance to the development of the province; and that importance has been emphasised by the opinion expressed in the Technical Survey of Agricultural Questions (League of Nations publications) that those countries prove most advanced in agriculture which have been most successful in creating a rural atmosphere in their schools.

2. *An unsuitable system.*—For many years the Punjab has been uneasy about its educational system. From interested amateurs there has been an increasing demand for vocational training, but the champions of that demand are often forgetful of the fact that, to be successful, vocational training should be based on a sound and suitable measure of general training. Mr. H. Calvert, I.C.S., author of "The Wealth and Welfare of the Punjab", Registrar of Co-operative Societies and now a member of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, and Mr. M. L. Darling, I.C.S., author of "The Punjab Peasant in Prosperity and Debt", have emphasised the economic evils which result from an unsuitable system of education. In his Educational Report (Bureau of Education, No. 3 Mr. H. G. Wyatt, I.E.S., late Principal of the Central Training College, Lahore, and sometime inspector of schools, has declared that in our educational system we have created a vicious circle of urbanism. From time to time in the past, the Department of Education has undertaken reforms which have aimed at rendering vernacular education of greater value to the peasant. A review of some of these experiments and a study of the causes of their success or failure is necessary to prepare the way for new developments.

3. *Zamindari schools.*—Before the beginning of the present century, there are records of only one serious endeavour to introduce a rural influence into village schools, and that attempt most instructively failed. Old reports tell us that in 1886-87 when additional funds were placed at the disposal of district boards for primary education, it was stipulated by the Punjab Government that a portion of those funds should be expended on the establishment of a new type of village school in every district. These were called "Zamindari Schools", and were to be of a much simpler kind than the ordinary primary schools in that they were intended to meet the special requirements of village people. The curricu-

lum was therefore limited to reading, writing, and arithmetic, the latter being taught according to Indian custom. In order to prevent the boys from losing touch with field occupations, a complaint which was often levelled against the ordinary schools, it was provided that boys should attend only for one school session a day, in the morning or the evening. Another important provision was that the zamindari school was divorced very largely from the ordinary scheme of education, and its pupils were not prepared for admission to schools of higher education. High were the hopes that the zamindari school would prove itself of great benefit to village folk and be much appreciated by them. The Department of Education was of opinion that, at a later date, one of these schools should be established in every tahsil. The Punjab Government was also in strong support of the experiment and declared in an important resolution that—

> "The Government has a right to expect that all officers will endeavour to promote education among the backward classes generally, but the agricultural classes have a special claim. The present scheme, though providing for the elementary education of their children, will not prevent them from still working in the fields; and, in these circumstances, His Honour considers that all the influence which officers of Government and leading men can exert can be safely applied to secure attendance."

4. Although the experiment was taken in hand with enthusiasm in several districts, the high hopes were not realised. Indeed, the experiment was doomed to disaster, as will be seen from the official records:—

> "By the end of 1892-93, there were 213 zamindari schools in the province, and 6,940 pupils enrolled in them, but from that time they began to decline; and at the end of 1898-99 there were only 192 schools and 5,962 pupils, and they have since gone down somewhat further. On account of the decline which was attributed to dislike on the part of the people, the matter was laid before the provincial educational conference. The conference by a small majority recommended that the zamindari schools should be converted into ordinary schools as that was what the people wanted, and not a type of school specially suited to their requirements as villagers."

5. *Causes of failure.*—The collapse of the zamindari school, though a matter of keen disappointment to its supporters, is most instructive to the student of rural education to-day. Perhaps the most potent causes of failure were the qualifications and the inclinations of those in whom rested the teaching and the inspection of these schools. A scrutiny of the personnel of the Education Department between 1887 and 1900 would probably support this contention. From what some of our older Indian colleagues have told us, it would appear that the Indian inspecting staff was almost

entirely urban in its outlook, and largely of one religion. This, in itself, must have been prejudicial to the progress of rural education in the eyes of the peasantry. It is but natural, therefore, that the teachers and inspectors of these schools were convinced that reading, writing, and arithmetic were beneficial in themselves to the peasant, and that there was no need of harmonising the teaching of these subjects with the environment of the pupils. Nobody seems to have considered the problem of adapting the teaching of these subjects to the improvement of agriculture and to the atmosphere of an Indian village; nor do we find any proposal that the curriculum should be altered in such a way as to encourage boys to improve their capacities as tillers of the soil. Nowhere, again, is there even a hint that the school should be of benefit to villagers in general by means of adult teaching or propaganda work in public health, agriculture, or the like. The zamindari school was the child of the Education Department; the officers of the other beneficent departments do not appear to have been interested in its welfare; nor was any effort made to interest them.

6. There were some experienced officers of Government, however, who not only appreciated the possibilities of the zamindari school, but also realised the general importance of rural education. At the very time when the zamindari school was hastening to its doom, Captain Fox-Strangways, Deputy Commissioner, Muzaffargarh, suggested as minor improvements in these schools the substitution of mahajani symbols and methods for the unsuitable arithmetic which was then in vogue, and the addition of mental arithmetic with the object of assisting the zamindar of the future to check the money-lender's account. He broke new ground when he suggested that a Punjab Manual should be prepared to enable boys to understand village revenue papers, and that for this purpose increased attention should be paid to the village map and its methods of construction. But Captain Fox-Strangways fully realised that these were at best minor suggestions for the improvement of a school, whose very existence and value were in serious doubt. He saw clearly that the problem was of far greater importance than the mere success or failure of the zamindari school, and that the real question was that of popularising and vitalising the education of the countryside. To his informed and original mind, the substitution of Roman Punjabi for Urdu as the medium of instruction was of vital importance; and he supported his opinion by sound and convincing arguments.

7. About the same time, there was another soldier-civilian, Lt. A. C. Elliott, Deputy Commissioner, Gujrat, who knew the peasant and strove for his uplift. In an illuminating letter which was addressed to the Director of Public Instruction, he expressed the following opinions:—

"Other reasons that prevent zamindari schools from flourishing, I have found to be these. Few zamindars send their sons to school except with the express intention of giving them an education to lift them out of their father's sphere

of life, not realising that they will thus become unfitted for the work to which they were born, and that Government employ cannot be found for all. The son goes to a zamindari school for five years, and is then eligible for admission only to the fourth class of a primary school and finds himself at the bottom of that class. Thus, the zamindar argues that if after five years in a zamindari school, he is only fit for the fourth class of a primary school, why send him to a zamindari school? The average zamindar is too conservative and apathetic in himself, and is much in the hands of the sahukars. The latter feel that if the village school is a zamindari one, their own sons will be handicapped in education. They therefore represent the zamindari schools in a bad light, and the dissatisfied and ignorant peasants refuse to support the zamindari schools and send their sons to the nearest primary school."

Thorburn 'The Punjab in Peace and War' has voiced the discontent of the rural population when it saw the quicker witted urban making high profits out of improvements which the Government had planned for the benefit of the farmer; this discontent was apt to make folk suspicious of the zamindari school.

8. Mr. Elliott's explanation of the sahukar's attitude is interesting. It may account for the opinion so widely expressed to-day by those who do not understand, or have little sympathy for, rural education that English is necessary in rural schools, because it is only by a thorough knowledge of English that a zamindar can obtain a wider knowledge of scientific agriculture.

9. Mr. Calvert and Mr. Darling support Mr. Elliott's statement about the release from labour when they remind us in forceful language that the main effect of an urbanised system of vernacular education is the determination of the pupils to do no work on the land when once they have wielded a pen, and that our schools are sucking the best brains and initiative of the village from the chief industry of the province. This has been the result of education throughout the world; and the harmful process has only been checked successfully by the creation of a rural atmosphere in the village school, by linking up its teaching with those forces which should uplift the countryside, and by improving the economic prospects of agriculture.

10. *Kheti in the school.*—At the time when zamindari schools were in a state of decay, Government made another attempt to give that vitality and environment to the curriculum which are essential to success. Agriculture was included as a subject in vernacular schools between 1898 and 1902. It was ordered that certain periods in the time-table should be set aside for what came to be known as kheti; and a small book was prepared on the subject, which was regarded as the outward and visible sign of the new and spiritual grace which was to pervade the countryside. It is amaz-

ing now to find how dim is the memory of this effort among men who were serving in the Department during the years in which kheti was included in the syllabus. As a subject it was probably still-born, while the book was regarded as an ordinary class reader and thus as an irksome addition to the work of the apathetic teacher. Teachers and inspectors alike were incompetent to prevent such a travesty of education. The outward form of the subject and the glamour of the new reader may have appealed to a few, but all thought only of the class-room and all forgot the application of the lesson to the peasant and the land. Mr. Wyatt's vicious circle had been established, and the mental attitude of all had been urbanised by their own education and by the petty routine of their official duties.

11. *Kindergarten and handwork*.—Running parallel in time with this attempt to teach agriculture and to vitalise the rural areas by the reading of a book, two other movements developed in connexion with rural education; first in the normal schools and then in the village schools themselves. Both had their genesis in the Central Training College, Lahore, then perhaps the most urban of educational institutions. It was decreed that kindergarten work and simple manual occupations connected therewith should be emphasised in rural as well as in urban education. Text-books were written on the subject, the same for town and country. It is perhaps correct to say that the original purpose of kindergarten was the introduction of the play element as a means of education for the town-bred child who has little or no opportunity of playing in a garden. The very name of this form of education might have suggested to the Department that the kindergarten of the village school should be the garden, yet it has taken a quarter of a century to realise this vital fact.

12. The development of kindergarten teaching in normal and village schools is interesting as an illustration of the almost inevitable results of introducing novel subjects where the spirit underlying their practice and the purpose of their introduction are not understood by those who teach and by those who inspect. Whether or not the spirit of kindergarten ever entered the village schools, the actual practice rapidly degenerated. Gaudily decorated cardboard blocks and the like were the chief object of the activities of the kindergarten class throughout the year. The more gaudy the blocks and the squares, the better the report.

13. *Nature study, drawing and manual training*.—The second attempt was aimed at giving a definite trend towards nature study in the object lessons; but the result was farcical. This is not surprising as those who trained the teachers and those who inspected the training had never collected butterflies and birds' eggs nor studied trees and flowers as a hobby. A little later, well-devised syllabuses in manual training and drawing were prepared. They were not successful because they were on too ambitious a scale and because they ignored the difficult conditions of work in village schools.

14. *A composite subject.*—About 1915-16 there was another interesting and instructive attempt to ruralise a section of the curriculum. Object lessons, nature study, general elementary science and geography were grouped together, quite rightly; and an effort was made to frame a syllabus covering the useful parts of all these subjects from the early stage of nature study and object lessons to the point at which geography and science branch out into full subjects. This syllabus is theoretically still in force. It looks well on paper, but has failed in its purpose. The reasons for failure are manifold. The compilers of the syllabus did not consider the sciences concerned from the aspect of agriculture, geography, sanitation and so forth, but were content to draw up a logical syllabus of the sciences and to make occasional reference to their practical application. The correct course would have been to give full instructions for the proper application of the teaching. But, even had this been done, there was scarcely an inspector or a teacher who could grasp the spirit of the new learning. In consequence, masters took the line of least resistance; they taught text-book science and ignored the practical application.

15. *School farms.*—Soon after the War, the Department inaugurated a reform far more important than appeared at the outset. It will therefore be convenient to describe this reform by quoting extracts from a departmental circular of 1923, in which the main principles of the reform which was initiated in 1918 were reviewed and discussed.

> "In the first place, it was decided to include and to provide for teaching in agriculture in the ordinary vernacular middle schools of a special and a separate type. The aim was, therefore, to enrich the middle course in rural areas by the inclusion of agricultural training and as an accessory to the general subjects taught in these schools. In the second place, having declared its educational objective in inaugurating these schemes, the Punjab Government decided that the training should be of a practical as well as of a theoretical nature. For the fulfilment of this object, it was proposed to attach to thirty vernacular middle schools farms of about three acres each. In the third place, the aim being mainly educational rather than agricultural, it was decided that the teaching should be conducted by specially selected and trained teachers of the senior vernacular grade rather than men with agricultural qualifications and without experience in the art of teaching."

New ground was thus broken. At long last, the educational authorities realised that training in agriculture was no longer to be regarded as a mystery and as something separate from village conditions, but that it was the corner stone of the temple. In the next place, the little school farms and minute garden plots opened up vistas of future development and progress, in which the village school would cease to be a home of meaningless instruction im-

parted by an alien and unsympathetic teacher, and would become a village institution, the centre of its hopes and the rallying point of all beneficent endeavour.

16. *Early difficulties.*—The new experiment, however, was faced at the outset by many difficulties and underwent many vicissitudes. At first, inspectors were inclined, mainly through lack of experience, to select those vernacular middle schools where land was cheap rather than those in which the majority of the boys were agriculturists and thus more likely to benefit by, and to appreciate, training in agriculture. They failed to realise that the quality of the pupils is far more important than a cheap investment. Given a large majority of agriculturists, it is not difficult to make a school farm beneficial alike to its pupils and to the neighbouring peasantry. Again, in India as in all other countries of the world, the high hopes and ideals which were so prominent in the years immediately succeeding the conclusion of the War, were soon dimmed and blunted by the most acute financial stringency. Very few farms could therefore be started during those lean years; and recourse was made to the institution of garden plots instead of school farms. Difficulties also arose in framing the time-tables, especially as optional English and agriculture are strange bedfellows. Unfortunately, the former is usually the more popular. An urban-minded headmaster is only too prone to fix his ideals in an impoverished high school with its urban teaching and its urban outlook rather than in a vernacular middle school with its smiling farm and with its courses tuned in harmony with rural life and progress. There have been other difficulties. District inspectors, well settled in a rut, have not been always zealous to introduce into the curriculum a subject uncongenial and unfamiliar to them, while ignorant conservatism has sometimes led district boards to stand in the way.

17. *Success.*—Fortunately, however, the experiment has stood the test and Government is so convinced of its success that it has taken over practically the whole cost of establishing these farms. (Appendix A). At the moment of writing there are sixty farms and sixty garden plots. In addition to these, many primary schools have well-kept little gardens the trend of whose development is not yet obvious from an educational point of view. There is much room for experiment and guidance. Here a farm has led the villagers to try improved seed and implements; there a farm instructor has advised the neighbouring peasantry about the cultivation of their lands. The recent reports of the agricultural inspector provide hopeful reading, and a couple of extracts have been made at random.

> "At Baddowal (Ludhiana district) the experience gained by the growing of potatoes, garlic and cauliflowers has been so successful that a few of the zamindars have begun to grow these crops for the first time in history, and good profits have accrued to them. This has served to extend the cultivation of these crops in the neighbouring vil-

lages as well. I consider this an achievement because the Hindu cultivators of these villages considered the growing of vegetables as something derogatory to their sense of self-respect."

And again:—

"At Kot Sultan, in the Thal tract, the village zamindars used to ridicule the idea of starting a school farm with the view of bringing about an improved production of crops. The same zamindars now look on the distinctly superior crops grown on the farm with appreciation. Potatoes, cauliflowers and other vegetables have been successfully grown on that farm, and this has aroused feelings of wonder among the local people who believed that the growing of vegetables was impossible in the sands of the Thal. In the very first year in which the farm was started, the wheat crop could not be grown without heavy application of manure and without less than fourteen waterings, the soil being almost incapable of retaining moisture, but by persistent cropping and judicious treatment of the soil great improvement has been effected. This year, a fair crop of wheat has been obtained from the same soil without any application of manure and with only five waterings."

This record of progress points clearly the way before us. If every vernacular middle school has a good farm, then the process of ruralising village education would be within reach of success.

18. The high school farms, on the other hand, were doomed to failure as the subject of agriculture was chained to the chariot wheels of the Matriculation examination and thus was regarded as a soft option and one separate from practical application. Moreover, the purchase of farms in thickly populated urban areas was prohibitive. It is only after the provincialisation of a number of high schools in rural areas that the scope of such training in high schools has been realised, though only now but dimly. Divorce agriculture from the Matriculation, banish it from the class-room, and let it be regarded by the pupils as a means of healthy recreation and interest. In a high school, agriculture should be the equivalent not of geography or Persian, but of hockey or football.

19. *Lessons from the past.*—In conclusion, it will now be appropriate to summarise the causes of success and failure for future guidance.

(*a*) Zamindari schools failed because they were divorced from the ordinary scheme of education, they did not lead naturally to higher education, and were therefore distrusted by the villagers. They also accentuated future difficulties by making urbans suspicious of reform in rural education.

(*b*) *Kheti* failed because it degenerated into a book subject and nobody saw that it must be made a practical subject.

(*c*) Object lessons and nature study failed because normal school staffs were incapable of teaching them intelligently, and the inspecting staffs had no knowledge of their real purpose.

(*d*) Kindergarten failed because it was an attempt to introduce into the village a system that had been highly specialised for urban schools in the industrial West. Moreover, there was nobody capable of maintaining the spirit of the system at the time when its form was being made suitable to the children of peasants.

(*e*) The 1915 attempt at a "composite subject" syllabus failed because the point of view of the authors was academic, while normal school and district staffs were incapable of developing the practical and rural side at which the author could only hint.

(*f*) School farms have not failed because the innovation was so complete a break with the past that some of the teachers and inspectors were dragged out of the old rut, because there is an expert agricultural inspector, because there are specially trained teachers, and because neighbouring farmers have been interested in their welfare by the simple fact that the farms have been useful to them.

20. Mr. Wyatt (*op. cit.*) has given us a more general summary of similar purport; a few extracts will be of interest.

> "Syllabus and text-books compiled for the purpose may be of some help, but what the missionary (*i.e.*, the educational reformer) has to impress on the teachers on the spot is not how to teach *from* a text-book but how to teach *off* it, how in this subject and in that to think first of the details of the pupils' daily life, and then how geography, the 3 R's, nature study, manual occupations can be so taught as to enlighten and give significance to those details."

And again:—

> "The tragedy of education is that, however high and true may be our ideals, at the present they always break down at the teacher."

Elsewhere, Mr. Wyatt speaks of the teacher as the essential pivot of any educational system, and on several occasions emphasises the prime importance of the supervising staff of inspectors. Mr. Wyatt's words are at once an implicit criticism of past endeavour and a clear indication of future direction. At last, the turning of the long lane was in sight.

CHAPTER II.

The Turning.

A changing outlook.—The experiments which have been reviewed in the previous chapter have a common feature in that they were all initiated from headquarters, were carried out by official agency and were given provincial application. *After the inception* of the political reforms *in 1920*, there was a great change in the outlook. Whether this was a case of "*Post hoc et propter hoc*" or "*Post hoc sed non propter*" is not material to the present inquiry; but the change is all important.

2. In the first place, the Education Department gained an entirely new conception of its duties. It is significant that in his evidence before the Lee Commission a Director of Public Instruction from another province implied that because the recognition of schools rested with the local university, inspectors of schools had little scope before them. It is true that inspectors in the Punjab have never interpreted their duties in so narrow a spirit, but at the same time until about 1920 members of the inspecting staff were so deeply concerned with class-work and, in particular, with the class-work of Anglo-vernacular schools and with the improvements of English teaching, that the boy within the compound absorbed their whole attention. True, there were night schools, but these were city schools with a curriculum practically identical with that of the day schools of similar grade. The angle of vision then underwent a startling change. The full dress inspection followed by pages of detailed criticism lost popularity; inspectors were ceasing to be chiefly examiners and were becoming more and more clearing houses of new ideas picked up in school and out, on deputation in foreign lands and on home leave, in conversation with all sorts and conditions of men, in the reading of books and pamphlets. Annual reports from the five divisions during the last six years have achieved almost historic significance. The inspection staff had turned its eyes from the boy at the desk to the boy in his environment; and then to those dimly envisaged inhabitants of that environment, fathers and big brothers. No thinking men could see these without feeling deeply that the duty of an Education Department is to seek out those that sit in darkness and to give them light.

3. Coincident in time and probably in origin, there came a change in outlook at the headquarters of the Department. In spite of the vast labours arising from the policy of rapid expansion and from the application of compulsion (Appendix B), the attention of the headquarters staff was turned to the duties of the Department in promoting the welfare of the community as a whole; and the clearing house function of headquarters was developed to an extent hitherto unknown in the Punjab. The intense activity of the last few years is recorded in a series of ministerial circulars which would have proved strange reading to those who were at work in 1919.

4. *Consequent developments.*—We cannot attempt to recount chronologically the development of work in the five divisions, but it is symptomatic of the new order and of the new spirit that each division has made its own contributions. Indeed, it is worthy of note that many experiments have been initiated by individuals and therefore have been applied in the first instance to small areas. We have therefore made no effort to make a complete record of these developments, but merely to give illustrative types; nor is any comparison of values implied in the order in which they are mentioned. We assume that those who read this report are familiar with the evils which the various experiments were designed to combat. We know, and would have others realise, that inspectors and masters of all grades have suggested and borrowed ideas freely among themselves, and that some of the most helpful efforts have been originated by the younger men.

5. These were times of rapid expansion, the enrolment of pupils being increased from 556,989 in 1920-21 to 1,062,806 in 1925-26. One of the pleasing features of this marked increase is that it was effected by a consolidation and an expansion of the existing schools rather than by a multiplication of new schools. By this means, the unsatisfactory type of one-teacher school has been very largely eliminated, and the number of lower middle schools with six classes have been largely increased. An even more important feature of recent policy in connection with the particular matter under review has been the deliberate attempt to encourage backward and rural areas. This encouragement has been brought about in many ways. To base grants on expenditure is merely to accentuate the difference between rich and poor, between progressive and backward. Grants are therefore assessed with reference to the needs rather than to the resources of each district. In accordance with this principle each district is graded. To a rich district 50 *per cent* of its additional approved expenditure is given in the form of a maintenance grant, but to a poor district anything between 50 and 90 *per cent* is awarded. Encouragement is also given to those resident in backward areas to come forward for training as the village teachers of the future. In this connection, it should be remembered that a teacher from a progressive area is reluctant to teach, and is usually unsuited to teaching, in a backward area. Similarly, a young man residing in a backward area is equally reluctant to go far afield for his training. A training institution in a backward area would soon serve its purpose and its utility would come to an end. The device of attaching training units (a unit is a class of forty students) to high schools in backward areas has gone far to meet the demand for locally trained teachers in those areas. Other means of encouraging the backward have been the provincialisation of high schools, a better and more equitable distribution of facilities for Anglo-vernacular education, and the institution of intermediate colleges.

6. *Greater reality.*—In the matter of school work proper, there has been an increasing determination to present education to the

pupils in a new light. Schooling has thus become less of a mystery and more of a reality. For example, when the passing out test of the fourth primary class (only too often the final stage of education for the boys) was remodelled on utilitarian lines, the boys were tested in the ability to write, address and read post-cards, read simple printed matter of general interest, fill in money orders, write, sign and understand a receipt. Again, to bring the primary curriculum and the spirit of kindergarten into contact with the facts of life the *project* method was introduced with some measure of success.

7. Reference has already been made to the introduction of agricultural training by means of small farms and garden plots. Other means have also been adopted to enrich the courses and to provide a better and fuller training for meeting the problems and difficulties of life. Manual training centres have grown apace, but there is much room for improvement in the experience and capacity of the instructors. Science laboratories have been improved, mainly under the guidance of the Central Training College. Much greater attention has been paid to the oriental side of the school library and to general reading in the classics and the vernaculars. But the main lines of improvement have been in the lives of the pupils outside the class-room. School gardens and the planting of many trees and flowering shrubs have beautified the boys' surroundings. Health and physique have been improved by the provision of meals at school. The 'play for all' movement has risen on the embers of the 'tournaments for a few'. Plague has been grimly fought by district inspecting staffs and village schoolmasters. Co-operative supply, savings and compulsory education societies have sprung up under our auspices. The Warden of Fisheries has lectured on birds, beasts, and fishes in our school buildings to audiences collected by our staffs. Infant welfare authorities have utilised our varied resources for their work. Singing has been revived; and concert parties have attempted to lighten the dulness of village life. Above all, the Boy Scouts have already made a deep impression on the life of the province. They have been the means of affording to the boys good and healthy recreation; they have instilled in them a love and a desire of service to the community; and it may well be that, in the fulness of time, they will counteract the ugly strife of communal hatred.

8. *Ruralising the curriculum.*—These are but examples of individual and official efforts to give vitality to our educational system. In 1923, the Ministry of Education appointed a committee to consider the adaptation of the courses in rural schools to rural needs and requirements. The main conclusions of the committee were as follows:—

(*i*) In regard to primary schools, the subject matter taught and the methods of instruction pursued should be such as to bring the work in a primary school into the closest relation to the life and experience of the pupils. In the second place, the acquisition of suitable knowledge

and the attainment of literacy should be the main object of the course. The central subject should therefore be the reading lesson supplemented by oral instruction, which should have the dual object of imparting to the pupils the capacity to read and to understand simple books, and also of making them familiar with such useful and general knowledge as would equip them for a fuller and a wider life than is now possible with the present courses and rigid methods of teaching.

(*ii*) In regard to middle schools, the central subject of study should be that of rural science, which should co-ordinate and vitalise many subjects already included in the curriculum. It would therefore embrace physical geography, local geography, agriculture, rural economics (mainly the elementary principles of co-operation), rural hygiene, sanitation, and elementary civics.

9. These proposals represent a notable advance in the scheme of rural education, but their fulfilment is not yet within sight. The immediate preparation of revised courses and curricula in accordance with the proposals of the Committee and, still more, the publication of new text-books in conformity with those revised courses would have been fatal to success; and yet another addition would have been made to the long list of failures in the past for the simple reason that the limited qualifications of the village teachers had been overlooked. In the matter of the text-books, moreover, vested interests would have been created with the result that the upholders of those interests would have been added to the forces of the opponents of reform. Again, as we shall often have occasion to represent, it is not so much the courses and text-books which matter, but rather the interpretation of those courses and books. It is the teacher whose task it is to make that interpretation, yet there were but few of the village teachers of the Punjab who then understood the spirit of the new learning.

10. *Moga.*—The decision to postpone the acceptance of the Committee's proposals and to concentrate on a wiser selection and a more suitable training of the village teachers of the future was therefore momentous in the annals of Punjab education. Moreover, the province was fortunate in that a small band of Christian missionaries had been thinking of the problems of rural life and conditions in general and of the lot of the Indian Christian villagers in particular. The genesis of this inspiration was in all probability a remarkable report written by the Village Education Commission, which was appointed some years ago by the Central Council of Christian Missions. The result has been the middle school and training classes which are maintained by the American Presbyterian Mission at Moga. This remarkable institution owes its success to the late Mr. R. H. Carter, its founder, to Mr. W. J. McKee, and to the present Principal, the Rev. A. E. Harper. A full account of its activities will be found in Appendix C to this report. It is sufficient here to state that the main object of the

training class is to give to a small number of young Christians who have passed through the middle school course at Moga a training of such a nature as will equip them not merely to be efficient teachers, but also (and far more important) to be the rallying points of progress in the villages in which they serve. There is a large farm of some forty acres attached to the institution, and thus the young teachers not only learn the dignity of labour and thus to commend themselves to the villagers, but they also become conversant with improved methods of agriculture and are therefore in a position to help others in the village. With similar objects in view, village crafts are encouraged such as basket-making, charpoy-making, brick-making and so forth. The seed which was planted at Moga some years back is already bearing fruit in the persons of a number of young teachers who are earning the respect of the villagers and who are playing their part in the development of the countryside.

11. *The School of Rural Economics, Gurgaon.*—A little later in point of time but independently of Moga, a similar institution, called the School of Rural Economy, was started under the auspices of the District Board, Gurgaon. At Moga, the inspiration was that of a shrewd and noble-hearted missionary who was working for the good of the depressed classes; at Gurgaon the inspiration was that of a Deputy Commissioner who was determined to lift a backward district from the depths of dirt, disease and poverty. The methods and results, however, are very similar, though the training at Gurgaon is somewhat wider in its application and is linked up more closely with the problems confronting the several beneficent departments of Government. Besides the study of agriculture and the encouragement of village crafts, village sanitation, the theory and practice of co-operative societies, and the encouragement of village games, form part of the training. A fuller account of this remarkable institution will be found at Appendix D to this report. It is sufficient here to say that during the five years covered by his report there has been an amazing development of uplift in the Gurgaon District, to which reference will be made in the final chapters of this report.

12. *Gakhar normal school.*—Subsequent but again similar to the institution of the movements at Moga and Gurgaon, the Education Department determined to take advantage of the experience gained in these two places. Many experiments were being made in the vernacular training institutions of the province, and many of them held out high hopes of success. It was decided, however, to concentrate attention as far as possible to a single institution. The normal school at Gakhar was selected for this purpose because it is within comparatively easy reach of Lahore, and because it possesses fine buildings and some twenty acres of land. Though there is a distinct similarity between the three institutions in method and objective, yet again Gakhar has made its own contribution towards the solution of the general problem. The main object has been so to train the teachers of the future that the

village school shall become a centre of village life and progress. Farm work and village crafts are therefore encouraged at Gakhar; but even more important is the doctrine of service to the village community. With this purpose in view, the students under training face the problems of rural reconstruction by actual and practical work in the neighbouring villages in the matter of better sanitation, the institution and maintenance of co-operative societies, the holding of classes for adults, the encouragement of village games and recreation, and so forth. The infection of Gakhar quickly spread to the other vernacular training institutions in that, to a greater or lesser degree, all such schools are now adapting their methods and objectives to rural conditions.

13. *Adult education.*—Another important innovation of recent times has been the institution of schools for adults. At first, the scope of these schools was limited to a large extent to developing literacy among the peasantry. Ideas have since been broadened, and adult education is now taken to include village games and entertainments, lectures and informal discussions of topics of general interest, village libraries and magic lantern displays; in a word, it comprises all that makes for a happier, healthier, and more prosperous village life.

14. *Rural community councils.*—Much of the advance that has been recorded in this chapter was only made possible by satisfactory and effective co-operation between the several beneficent departments of Government. It was mainly chance friendships which made this co-operation possible in the beginning. As the results were too valuable to be left to chance, a Rural Community Board has been established at headquarters, and in each district there is a District Community Council, the main object of these authorities being to co-ordinate all activities whose object is the improvement of rural conditions.

15. *Encouragement.*—It will be remembered that as we laboured along the lane keen critics of our first attempt, the zamindari school, were found in deputy commissioners. In our hope that we are at last in sight of the promised land we are fortified by a quotation from another deputy commissioner who in the closing paragraph of his district report for 1924-25 wrote these words:—

> "The Education Department co-operates energetically with the district officers in all matters affecting local welfare and sets an excellent example. Indeed in regard to public health, physical training and an intelligent interest in affairs generally the Department are pioneers not only among school boys but among the rural population as a whole; and I have no doubt that if enlightened ideas continue to find better acceptance among the people at large, the results will be due in no small measure to the practice and precepts of educational workers."

CHAPTER III.

Journeyings in England. Guideposts and Friends by the Way.

Needs for future progress.—Our review of forty years' educational effort in the province by no means disheartened us. It was clear that progress had been made and that even with the existing curriculum and staff, the educational system of the Punjab was proving beneficial not only to school boys but also to their parents. Ventures in community work had already shown some hopeful measure of success; and this suggested that such work is perhaps one of the principal functions of a Department of Education. On the other hand, it was felt that much more could be done to improve and to extend every educational activity by the agency of more suitably trained inspectors and teachers, and that experience from outside of India was most desirable.

2. *Our task.*—Thus it came about that we were privileged to spend three months on deputation, during an interval of long leave in England, in making a study of English rural conditions. An important part of our duty was the examination of the curricula, matter and methods of village schools and their teachers and the means whereby village teachers are qualified for their work. Our purpose was also to attempt an analysis of the beneficent institutions at work in the English countryside with a view to adapting as many as possible to the needs of the Punjab.

3. *Fundamentals alike throughout the world.*—In casual conversation with many men we have found a strong conviction that such adaptation must be impossible where conditions are so unlike. We hold a contrary opinion; for there are certain fundamentals which seem common to the peasantry of the world. The Technical Survey on Agricultural Questions (League of Nations Publications) shows that certain defects of education in rural areas are world-wide in occurrence, and also that the lines of reform suggested for the removal of such defects are similar. Thus, for example, from distant Chile the Punjab slogan is repeated that "No village school can fulfil its purpose without a plot of land". Moreover, it will be seen from the following chapters that important problems in the Punjab not infrequently have their parallels in England. We also find that our aspirations are not unlike those of workers in England, and that the Punjab organisation and method are by no means backward in certain matters such as the valuable co-operation which exists between the Departments of Education and Public Health, and the provision which is being made for a suitable training of teachers in village schools. And constantly do we realise how comparatively light would be the task of educational reform in this province, had we men and women in our schools with the personality, zeal, knowledge and skill that now are so often found in the village schools of England.

4. *An itinerary.*—In the three months of work we travelled some thousands of miles by road; and we literally journeyed the length and breadth of the country. A rapid study of rural England is otherwise impossible. Oxfordshire for several reasons took more of our time than any other county. Before the coming of the motors' bus parts of it were curiously isolated. The villagers are often very poor; they are also conservative to a degree. At quite a recent date it might have been classed as a backward area, but now there is active educational development. Central schools are being established: manual training, housewifery, cookery, laundry, agricultural and other courses are being instituted, physical training and games are being thoroughly organised. The influence of the University on the county is of growing importance. There is also close co-operation between the Local Educational Authority, the University Extension movement, the Rural Community Council and Women's Institutes. In this county we had exceptional opportunities not only of seeing things, but also of discussing them with many men and women who are either personally engaged in the work or are watching the march of progress with sympathy and understanding. Other places were visited for special purposes. Kent, a richer and more advanced county, surprised us by the quality of its school staffs, its high level of organisation, its county library system, and the revival of dying village crafts by its Rural Community Council. We went to Cambridge to discuss the village college and to study the system of central schools; and to see something of the course in rural science which has been instituted for country schoolmasters. In a Dartmoor inn we talked of homecrofting and homecrafting with an enthusiastic inspector. In Cumberland, a highly organised county, two rural secondary schools were the particular subject of study. In a Yorkshire dale a rural survey party was watched at work. Many elementary schools were visited, some of them in remote villages; nor were these always the best schools, for at times we asked to be shown the worst for the sake of comparison. This is an incomplete itinerary, but it will serve to illustrate the nature of our studies.

5. *Too short a time.*—Three months proved all too short for what there was to see, and six months at least should have been allotted. The period of three months was suggested by one of the writers of this report, who calculated the time required on the basis of what he saw of English schools in Northumberland, Durham and the North Riding of Yorkshire in 1921. Neither of us realised that the growth of educational and other social activities in the intervening five years had been so great. Moreover, at least a portion of the period of deputation should have been spent during the winter months when the long evenings are utilised for further education. Another matter affected our programme. The great freedom and initiative allowed in England to educationists of all grades renders much experimental work possible. A single central body cannot become quickly aware of all that is going on. Thus we constantly found a snowball effect

in our programme. People were always saying " You must go and see so and so or such and such a place", and often when we got there we received again the same advice. In consequence, as we were to sail for India almost immediately after the completion of our deputation, Gloucestershire and Cheshire were covered by short conversations with the county Directors. The former county would probably prove interesting, in particular on account of certain experiments which are being made in improved methods of teaching; the latter on account of its organisation. as the Director believes in centralisation; the Local Educational Authority takes unto itself functions which in other counties are performed by the Rural Community Council and other bodies, a policy which appears to justify itself as Cheshire is rapidly establishing a reputation for its rural developments.

6. *Friendly help.*—At this stage, it is most fitting to make grateful mention of those whom we were privileged to meet in our journeyings and to whom we are indebted for wise advice and valuable information. From the most distinguished authorities to the rank and file of village school masters and mistresses all welcomed us kindly, took great trouble to help us and not rarely gave us delightful hospitality.

7. First of all, we offer humble and hearty thanks to Sir Michael Sadler, Master of University College, Oxford, for the privilege of laying our problems and difficulties before him. Not only did he point the way for us in many directions, but most thoughtfully arranged for us to meet at his lodgings, Messrs. Keigwin and Latham of the Rhodesian Education Department, who had recently returned from a study of rural education in the United States of America. From them we received a number of interesting suggestions. Not the least part of the debt that we owe to Sir Michael Sadler was his advice to call on Miss Hadow of Barnett House. The information that she gave us and the interest that she and her fellow workers took in our programme are perhaps best repaid by what we have written in Chapter VI. We are also most grateful to the author of " England's Green and Pleasant Land " for several hours of stimulating and suggestive conversation. By the courtesy of Le Play House we had the pleasure of spending two days with one of their rural survey parties. Mr. Dale of the Ministry of Agriculture gave us valuable advice.

8. We owe thanks also to the officials of the Board of Education; in particular, to Mr. A. R. Ainsworth whose office work was increased by our deputation, and to His Majesty's Inspectors of Elementary Schools in Oxford and Devon. To the Directors of Education in the counties of Kent, Cambridge, Oxford, Gloucester, Cheshire and Cumberland we are indebted for much valuable information, literature, and permission to visit their schools. In connexion with enquiries made into rural education in England in 1921, which influenced to some extent education in the Punjab between 1922 and 1925 and perhaps primarily led to this report, it is but right to mention for similar help His Majesty's Inspectors of

Elementary Schools in Northumberland, Durham and the North Riding of Yorkshire, and the Directors of Northumberland and Durham. Dr. Halliday of the Oxfordshire staff took much trouble to show us the county schools. To the many masters and mistresses who so gladly showed us their work this report is in itself something of a tribute. Lastly, we thank Sir George Anderson, Kt., C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, for wise advice and help in the drafting and arranging of this report.

CHAPTER IV.

The Village Elementary School of England.

(i) *Pre-war apathy.*

In the years immediately preceding the War the rural schools of England were at a low ebb. It is the object of this chapter to relate the efforts which have been, and are being, made to give life to these schools and to bring their training into harmony with rural life. In a later chapter, we shall strive to explain many other activities which, though not directly concerned with the progress of rural schools, have yet done much not only to give inspiration and vigour to those who live in pleasant but distant places, but also to render to the schools and the teachers the position which is rightly theirs in the development of the countryside.

2. *England and the Punjab.*—In considering the part played in the English village by the elementary school, it should be borne in mind that in classification it corresponds to the full vernacular middle school of the Punjab. Generally, it has a much smaller enrolment and is never faced by a second language problem. Though in some ways organisation is simple, in others it is extremely difficult. In such schools there may be from thirty to one hundred children of ages varying from four to fourteen, and these have to be divided into seven or eight classes; yet the whole school may be in charge of one or perhaps two teachers only. Those who have attempted to teach three or more classes at the same time know only too well the difficulty of the task. Obviously, several of the classes must be combined for most, if not for all subjects. Thus, the mental development of the brighter children is retarded, while the slower-witted are apt to be neglected.

3. In many respects English problems resemble those of the Punjab. Twenty years ago, the curriculum of the rural school was as clerical as that of the urban. There was a strong townward drift of the brightest young folk, and therefore many employers of agricultural labour condemned education in the strongest terms or else demanded vocational education, often with the strong support of the press. Almost all the training colleges were located in the towns, and the bias of their work was predominantly urban. Moreover, the outlook of the universities was averted from the countryside.

4. *Rural teachers.*—The main problem was therefore to find qualified and trained teachers who were desirous of service in village schools; and many factors contributed to the difficulty. Elementary school teachers were then very poorly paid. Few, however good, could hope to rise above a salary of ten pounds a month. A distinguished educationist with fifty years of experience of training college work has asserted that whereas in his younger days there was keen competition among the best qualified pupils of English elementary schools to enter the training college,

by 1908 the lower grades of the Civil Service with their expanding cadres, better pay and better prospects, were attracting this type of scholar. Thus it came about, so he held, that it was only the fool of the family who took to teaching. About this time of educational neglect, the President of the Board of Education lowered for a year or so the quality of the new entry to the training colleges by interfering with the selection of candidates on political and religious grounds. Thus, the standard of all elementary school work was still further reduced.

5. Unfortunately, this wave of depression affected the rural schools far more adversely than the urban schools. The Liberal and Labour parties had captured to a considerable extent the town councils throughout the country, and were more than lavish in their expenditure on education. On the other hand, county councils and other rural elected bodies were still the preserves of landowners and farmers who are ordinarily conservative in politics. They were then inclined both by temperament and by the strain of heavy taxation to starve education and to be sceptical of the value of schooling for the lower classes. Thus, the ambitious teacher naturally looked for employment in industrial and urban areas; and the village had to be contented with dissatisfied and incompetent third-raters. The financial inferiority of the village school affected staffing in other ways. The day of the woman teacher had arrived. Village girls willing to accept lower pay and thus the more readily employed by the rural school authorities, found in teaching a most welcome escape from the drudgery of domestic service, household duties or labour on the land. The village girl could not compare in education with the girl of the prosperous town school; and secondly, with no ability in games and often with no strength of personality, she was entirely unfitted properly to control village boys approaching the age of adolescence. Thus again did the village school suffer.

6. Such few teachers of good qualifications as were then serving in village schools were also most discouraged by the attitude of the parents towards education. The agricultural labourer and the small farmer were very conservative, opposed to change, undesirous of education for themselves and unbelieving in its value for their children. The wish of the majority was to withdraw their children from school at the earliest possible moment in order to employ them in the minor but necessary home and farm tasks for which they were fitted. The depressing attitude of the parents was reflected not unnaturally in the apathetic and listless behaviour of the children in the class-rooms.

7. *The handicap of small numbers.*—The small rural schools also suffered inevitably in the limited scope of the curriculum. In a town school the number of children in attendance was usually large enough to provide employment for specialist teachers in manual training, domestic science and other special subjects. In any case, attendance at a centre for the teaching of such subjects was facilitated in urban areas by the proximity of school to

school, and by quick and cheap means of transport. At the time of which we are writing, transport between village and village was slow, infrequent and expensive.

8. *Inferior buildings.*—The rural school was also handicapped only too often by the inadequacy of its buildings. In town and country alike, inspectors fought for improved buildings. In the town they were often successful, as the municipal authorities, themselves often sprung from the working classes, were by no means averse from imposing heavy rates to provide money for lavish building grants, but in the countryside there was no such encouragement. The religious and local bodies then functioning in rural areas still clung to the old-time opinion that good school buildings would tend to make the children discontented with their own homes. Some denominational bodies were well-meaning exceptions to this rule, but they were usually in the grip of deep-rooted traditions and therefore preferred buildings with narrow gothic windows and second-hand air to the bright and serviceable school buildings of to-day.

9. *A silver lining.*—These were some of the handicaps under which education in village schools laboured in pre-war days, but there were a few streaks of silver lining to the dark cloud of apathy and neglect. A small number of educational authorities were beginning to experiment in the reconstruction of rural schools and curricula. The records of the Board of Education show that it was keenly alive to many of these defects, though it could do but little while it was in subordination to a political party returned to power mainly by the votes of industrial constituencies. Nevertheless, its experts were preparing themselves for brighter days, and were attentively watching particular experiments in rural education which were being developed in countries such as France, Denmark and America. Nor was the outlook entirely black so far as the teachers were concerned. A few good teachers have always tired of town life, while others for health or family reasons are prepared to accept posts as headmasters in rural schools. A number of these were studying the problems of rural education and, where the inspector was sympathetic, began to experiment. In those days, the inspiration of Mr. Edmond Holmes' "Egeria" was as a beacon set on a hill. A new spirit was born, but the coming of the War put an end apparently to all hopes of its growth.

10. *The blessings of war.*—In reality the War nourished this spirit as nothing else could have done. There was a great change in mentality, the begetting of an altruistic desire to improve the lot of the people. An outward and visible sign of the new and spiritual grace was the creation of rural community councils, an institution which will be discussed in greater detail in a later chapter. On these councils were educated men and women with an intimate knowledge of village life and inspired by a determination to improve its conditions. As often as not, directors and other educational officials were members of these councils, and as such they could seek advice and be given guidance. The mere fact of

their association in this work with the members of these councils must have been a constant inspiration to them; the result was the development of a rural bias in all village schools.

(ii) *The central school and its staff.*

11. *Centralisation.*—One of the most important provisions of Mr. Fisher's Education Act of 1918 was to raise the age of leaving school, and this had a much greater effect on rural schools than perhaps its author anticipated. The small village school with its several classes, often taught by women or by inferior teachers, was obviously unfitted to stand the strain involved by two additional years of schooling. The solution was the formation of the central school and the decapitation of the small schools within reach of it. There are two main types of central school developing in England. One resembles the Punjab system of organisation, a full higher elementary school of eight or nine standards with an extra supply of children joining the fifth standard from the decapitated branches. The other type consists only of the higher standards from the fifth upward; it also is fed by a group of four-class elementary schools. This development has not yet been completed, but the system is steadily advancing. Among its bitterest opponents are the heads of the schools to be reduced and the parents was the children enrolled in them. The opposition of the parents was the more formidable, but this is steadily decreasing. The marked improvement in the work done by the children in the central schools is already being appreciated. The provision of free transport by means of the bicycle or the motor 'bus (in this matter it is worthy of mention that bicycles are cheaper than buildings and therefore some local education authorities supply bicycles for school children) is easing the situation, and the arrangements for midday meals at a nominal cost are an obvious attraction. Here and there we found a more serious difficulty where the managers of a denominational school were strongly opposed to its decapitation, which would result in the boys going on to a county council school for the final years of their education.

12. *Better teachers.*—Of the work of these central schools, we shall speak later. For the moment it is interesting to note the part which they have played in attracting a better class of teachers to the countryside. It is possible to pay the head of a central school at a distinctly higher rate than the heads of scattered elementary schools. The increases under the Burnham scale have further improved the prospects of these posts. Thus there is more scope of advancement in the country school than ever before. Another factor which has contributed materially to the improvement of the rural teaching staff is the influence of the War upon the minds of men. Modern warfare drives many to yearn for the delights of country life, the peace, the cheerfulness and the beauty of natural surroundings. In a number of schools we found men of considerable educational qualifications who until 1914 had worked in large town schools where they had scope for their ambitions.

In 1919 and the succeeding years numbers of such men sought posts in village schools and settled down to rural hobbies and studies with the knowledge that their salaries would be sufficient to keep them in reasonable comfort, and that their lives would be healthier and probably happier than in the towns. The amazing development of the motor 'bus and wireless has also increased greatly the amenities of country life. Thus have earlier tendencies been reversed, and the village school is no longer the last resort of the weakling. Almost all the headmasters of central schools whom we met were outstanding men, and some of them were very highly qualified. One had organised historical lectures for all the teachers of the county and had played a large part in forming a bureau of historical information, where documents relating to the history of the villages of the county were collected and published. Another lectured regularly on literature and art in his village. Almost all had high ambitions for their schools, and held that the central school should become a centre of village life.

(iii) *Courses and curricula.*

13. *Problems of understaffing.*—The improved staffs and the larger enrolment have met with beneficial results. Though all educational authorities proclaim that the ideal is " one class and one teacher " with a class of about thirty children, it is somewhat disappointing that in not a single elementary school which we visited had this ideal been realised. In some cases the defect was mitigated by ignoring the official division by standards in the majority of subjects and by dividing the children into groups. For example, in one central school the headmaster, a trained teacher with a good degree, took the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh standards in a single group for history and geography. For arithmetic* the pupils were separated into standards, one standard being taught orally, while the remainder worked examples from their books. Composition was taken almost entirely individually. The difficulties of the reading lesson were overcome by setting the children to silent reading and by calling individuals or a single class to read before the master; but reading aloud was resorted to very sparingly and chiefly as a training in elocution. Central schools with their larger attendance have benefited even more by being in a position to add certain subjects which are impossible and to elaborate the teaching of other subjects beyond what is possible, in the smaller elementary schools. Carpentry, domestic economy and handicrafts come under the former category, the more thorough teaching of general elementary science and of English come under the latter.

14. *Originality in teaching.*—In the teaching of all subjects we found originality and experiment. In English, dramas and plays are acted in the long winter evenings for the entertainment of the villagers; and even the writing of verse is encouraged. In history

* For the arithmetic syllabus, *see* Appendix E.

and geography, the regional survey method has been carried to considerable lengths by some teachers. In certain schools the whole parish is surveyed geographically and historically; and from the rough sketches in their field note-books, the children work out under the guidance of a teacher sets of charts dealing with the population, rainfall, crops, industries and so forth. In other places all the fields and main buildings in the parish are marked and the names given; and there is often interesting history in the name of a field or a hill. Again, enthusiastic headmasters have worked out *local history* with their pupils from the parish records.

15. *A regional survey.*—We quote at length an account of the introduction of a regional survey by a young school mistress who was one of the pioneers of this type of work. She is the mistress of a school with thirty-seven boys and girls on the roll in seven standards, a somewhat difficult proposition. She is trained and certificated and has one assistant, an untrained girl.

> "Immediately after Armistice Day the present headmistress was sent to this small rural school 'on supply' (which has lasted seven years). The school was so small as to be bewildering, but the amount of work crying to be done was even more bewildering. Life certainly was not extinct, but needed to be coaxed into animation. The range of ages was the first puzzle, but broad grouping in two classes for oral work, and for the rest individual work from reliable text-books supplemented by notes prepared by the teacher with the aid of a cyclostyle, have seemed to be a solution. With abundant help from His Majesty's Inspectors and a very generous equipment of all types of books requisitioned from the local educational authority, the machinery was set in motion.

> "The great desire of the headmistress was so to handle the six or seven bigger boys of thirteen or fourteen years that school to them should be the home of common sense, of pure and clean thinking, of endless fun and fair play, of truth-telling and honest dealing—a place where all their little daily blessings could come home to roost. Religion was rubbish if it ended at 9.40 a.m., but it was well known to be the unfailing source of self control which was preached in season and out of season; and when it slipped out of the mistress' own grip (on an average some twenty times a day), she asked for grace publicly to acknowledge the same, whereupon everybody started afresh.

> "To one boy, however, school was an abomination; and to his horse-dealing father it was worse than that. The mistress felt that the sole reason was the boy's own backward condition in reading, writing and arithmetic. The other children scorned him, and in return he swore at them with befitting emphasis. The best thing seemed to be to put the boy's foot on some ladder which he could scale and from which he could look down with smiles of

complete mastery and satisfaction. The headmistress found inspiration in the boy's own beloved fields and birds and all things living, in a certain clumsy cleanness of copy writing and drawing. The boy was then privileged to use the headmistress' own chair, desk, books and mapping pen, and was encouraged to make a new map of the parish, in which he named every field and marked every boundary. The idea leapt into *life*. *The result* was that the boy became *good* in school; he was *no longer* a public menace; he *regained* his soul, *while* every *other* child *rejoiced in his regeneration*. Shortly afterwards, a conference of teachers held at Keble College, Oxford, discussed the desirability of conducting some kind of rural survey; and this mistress smiled and exulted within herself. The lecturer spoke from the national point of view, but she knew the personal value.

"Then came another August holiday for the school for five weeks of doing nothing for *98 per cent.* of us. Let us be real explorers of Idbury, Fifield, Foxcote and Bould. So we made maps, flower presses, charts for wind and rain, and boxes for soil, fossils and 'funny things'. A rural child needs a wide classification in which to enrol such 'funny things'; and a bicycle lamp makes a splendid lens. And here we are at still another August, keener and more joyous than ever. Help has come pouring down upon us like manna from the local educational authority, from two of His Majesty's Inspectors, from Barnett House with its professors of geography, agriculture and economics. Some of our findings have been collected for use by the British Association. This means little to me, but the joy of new life to the child is beyond anything we have touched so far in school. But it has its dangers, and I must in all honesty enclose a copy of the last report of His Majesty's Inspector, the sting being in the tail.

"This school has some striking characteristics. *Each term includes some outstanding effort dominating all other activities as a means of energising the routine of school work.* The value to the older children of intelligent and intensive use of local materials (in local survey and research, contours, springs, crops and field names) is great. Every native boy is expected to devise a self-made map of the parish. By these and other means such as well-chosen literature and songs, well varied and tasteful handwork, and a carefully planned scheme of private study for the older children, the vigorous enlightened and thoughtful headmistress has tried with very fair success to capture the interest of her children and to invest their work with an air of reality.

"There remains, however, still some fear that the mistress in her desire to provide more generous and humanising

elements of education does not exact in sufficiently full measure the thoroughness and precision which are so necessary in the fundamental subjects, and without which the school cannot, as it could now easily be, hope to be entirely sound."

16. *School gardens.*—A curious but natural result of the War was the development of gardening as a school subject. By 1914, the school garden had come into existence, chiefly through the enthusiasm of a few teachers and inspectors; and here and there good results were achieved. The submarine campaign enforced upon the country the mobilisation of school children for the cultivation of every available plot of ground. The result was that school gardens sprang up in thousands, and the success of these child gardeners was notable. With the close of the War, the Board of Education realised the importance of gardening as a school subject. It also realised that war methods were not educational in the fullest sense, and therefore set to work to alter the teacher's point of view of the school garden. In the years between 1921 and 1926, the aim of school gardens altered to a surprising extent. In the earlier period they were chiefly cultivated with a view to get the maximum production of food stuffs, but by 1926 in many of the better schools they had become in some sense rural laboratories. This change was brought about mainly through the inspectorate.

17. *Arts and crafts.*—Handicrafts and arts again give scope for experiment, and the practice is to link up these with the ordinary school subjects. In one school weaving was taught in the manual training centre. The designs were prepared during the drawing lesson, and the looms were made by the boys in their carpentry periods. Elsewhere we found the children engaged in book-binding, pottery, basket-making, shoe-making and metal work. Handicrafts are also correlated with work in the garden, the boys making barrows, bee-hives, labels for the trees; and in some cases they have fenced the garden. Some manual training centres recalled to us our own school days and the Boys Own Paper; on the shelves were books explaining how to make all kinds of things. In some centres boys were constructing telephones and electric bells; in others they were undergoing courses in household repairs and were mending cane-seated chairs. The avowed aim of the masters is to turn out handy men.

18. *Manual training centres.*—In many cases the manual training room serves as a centre not only for the schools in the immediate vicinity, but also for those at some distance where transport is easy. It is also open in the evening, and men, women and boys are often in attendance. We met a school mistress who was learning carpentry so that she might teach the boys in her single-teacher school. From time to time boys make things for sale; and a Boy Scout troop has financed itself to a considerable extent by the sale of tea-trays made by the members in the manual training centre during their spare time. The making of articles of full

size gives reality to manual training work; and the reality is emphasised in cases where the boys make things of use to them in their own homes, as when we saw a boy making a kennel for his dog under the supervision of his master.

19. *Training for girls.*—Domestic economy and its teaching in these schools is very good. By its very nature it has a bearing on life, but in England there is a determined effort to give even this subject a rural bias. In some schools girls learn fruit bottling; in others to make cheese and butter and to market them. The older girls often prepare the mid-day meal in the domestic economy class for the whole school. In one school the girls are given special lessons in the selection of good vegetables and in their cooking. Thus, the boys grow the vegetables, the girls cook them, and all eat them. The headmaster's idea is that when the boys and girls grow up and are married, the wife should insist on the growing of good vegetables by her husband and the husband should insist on good cooking by his wife. In the teaching of handicrafts and housewifery, the travelling expert has been of great value in maintaining the standard of good work, in studying local handicrafts and cottage industries, and in suggesting the development of the school course so as to make it ancillary to these.

20. *Elementary science.*—General elementary science may be an ugly expression, but it permits a wide range of interpretation. According to the inclination of the teacher, the science period and the science syllabus include flower and vegetable gardening, fruit growing, the microscopic study of plants and insects, the analysis of soils, the study of the weather, and a variety of other things.

21. *Physical training.*—Another advantage of the central school is the increased efficiency of physical training and the possibility of playing major games. The heads of central schools often complained to us that the children coming to them from small elementary schools were weak in physical training and had not learned to play games. Throughout the country it is almost universal for the members of the school staff to be responsible for the physical training; and the drill instructor is found only in the very large schools. The standard of work is maintained by a special physical training inspecting staff, generally very well qualified. In some counties school sports associations have been formed to encourage inter-school games and athletic competitions. Physical training at times goes beyond the school; and parents are invited to demonstrations of games and drill and also to lectures given by the members of the health society, the playing fields association, the life saving society and the physical training staff. In Oxfordshire games are organised for children who have left school. In recent years there has been a great revival of folk-dancing, which is now closely linked up with physical training. The folk-dance society has provided physical training experts with a large number of dances and tunes. All this not only makes for a brighter village life, but is also having a marked effect on the bearing and movements of village boys and girls.

(iv) *Inspection and Supervision.*

22. *His Majesty's Inspectors.*—It was our privilege to meet a number of His Majesty's Inspectors during the course of our wanderings and in all cases we were delighted by the happy relations which exist between them and the school staffs and children. The Punjab belief that one of the chief functions of an inspector is to act as a clearing house of ideas has been developed to the full in England. This task has been rendered the easier by the duplication of inspecting staffs, the greater part of the administrative and financial work being controlled by the educational officials of the local bodies. Thus His Majesty's Inspectors have leisure and opportunity to study educational problems, to encourage enterprise and to guide it. A variety of syllabuses and all manner of experiments are therefore looked upon with favour. We have been greatly impressed by the freedom allowed to the village school to develop along the lines on which its teachers lead it. As an extreme case, we might quote one headmaster, whose two hobbies are the British Navy and ornithology. According to his inspector, the former was somewhat of a King Charles' head to him but it certainly interested the children and gave life to the geography and history lessons, while the headmaster's interests in birds gave to nature study a zest that spread to general elementary science.

23. *Teachers and villagers.*—In conclusion, a matter of great interest to us and one which we studied carefully was the relationship of the school and staff to village life. The problem of the agriculturist and the non-agriculturist is not acute in England since the average man and woman takes readily to village life and very few of the teachers have not spent holidays as children in the country; yet it is the habit of the villager to regard a newcomer as a foreigner. A school master who had been working in the same village for years told us with a smile that he was still a foreigner to the parents of the children. This, however, is probably a question of the teacher's personality and habitation, for we often found men and women who had become an important part of village life after a few years. In village inns and elsewhere we had many opportunities of discussing the school master with parents, and we found that his character and ability were matters of great interest to the villagers. We rapidly formed the conclusion that the village school teacher should be in the village and of the village. In too many English villages the housing problem is very acute, and the schoolmaster or mistress must travel miles to the school every day by bicycle, motor 'bus or train. In such a case, the influence of a teacher and the possibility of making the school a centre of life are greatly hampered.

CHAPTER V.

The Rural Secondary Schools of England.

External influences a drawback.—For the purpose of this chapter a rural secondary school is one situated in an agricultural area, and offering education with a definite rural bias to children up to the age of eighteen. In our opinion, there are far too few of these schools in England, but the reason is not far to seek. A country boy has ordinarily to begin to earn his living as soon as he can legally leave school at the age of fourteen. It is difficult for a boy to obtain secondary education unless he is above the average in intelligence or is the son of well-to-do parents; and of those in secondary schools only a small proportion hope to enter a University with a view to taking up a profession. As a rule, all are determined to escape work on the land if they can possibly do so. Thus, the parents of all children in country secondary schools and probably most of the governors demand that the secondary school shall offer the same opportunities as are given by large urban secondary schools; and they often hold that a rural bias handicaps the children in competition with the urban pupils. Moreover, the mere fact that the select few are aiming at a University career influences strongly the whole curriculum, another similarity between the Punjab and English systems of education.

2. *Rural bias.*—The educational authorities are not content with this state of affairs and desire that the secondary schools in rural areas shall have a definite rural bias; and several with this bias have been established. Two of the three schools which we visited were of exceptional merit and will be described in some detail. The third was certainly reverting to the ordinary type of secondary school, an obvious sign being that agriculture was falling back before the onset of Latin and pure science. The attitude of most parents and of some governors towards the secondary school curriculum to which reference has just been made emphasises strongly a point that we have learned from the study of our own educational system in the Punjab. The curriculum of the rural school should closely resemble that of a town school, and the chief difference should be in the application of the teaching of that curriculum. The headmaster of both the schools that we are about to describe were very definite in this contention.

3. *Type of pupil.*—The first rural secondary school to be described lies in a "mixed" farming area on the border of a mountainous tract. It is situated in a small market town with a population of 2,590 souls. The whole neighbourhood from which the school draws its pupils has a population just short of nine thousand. Four and a half miles east of the school lies a small coal-mining area. Except for this, the sole industry of the surrounding districts is agriculture. At the time of our visit there were sixty-nine boys and fifty-three girls on the roll, the original accommodation

having being planned for sixty. The occupations of parents are given as follows:—

(*a*) Farmers	25 per cent.
(*b*) Land workers, labourers, carters, etc.	15 per cent.
(*c*) Shopkeepers	20 per cent.
(*d*) Professional or clerical workers	20 per cent.
(*e*) Unclassified	20 per cent.

The headmaster attempted to trace the careers of the pupils who had left the school during a period of five years. He was able to give definite information about sixty boys and sixty-three girls, who represented almost the total number leaving the school during the quinquennium:—

	Boys.	Girls.
Farm workers	21	...
Clerical occupations	16	3
Pharmacy, engineering, telegraphy	8	...
Shop assistants	5	12
Artisans	2	...
Gardeners	1	...
Sailors	1	...
Teachers	3	17
Home workers (often in farms)	...	27
Nurses	...	4
University students	3	...
TOTAL	60	63

From our experience in other rural areas we were surprised to find that no pupil from this school during the period analysed had entered the police, a common form of escape from land work and very attractive owing to its relatively high pay and prospects.

4. *Age of admission.*—This school is in reality a highly developed central school. The pupils are admitted at the age of ten if sufficiently advanced in their studies and may remain until they reach the age of eighteen or, with the special permission of the Governors, of nineteen years. The headmaster considers that, to gain the full advantage of the school, a pupil should enter before the age of twelve years; that is to say, at the fifth standard and at an age of about eleven. Almost all the pupils come from local elementary schools. The school is divided into six forms, each roughly representing a year's work. The curriculum followed by all pupils leads up to the School Leaving Certificate examination, which is taken in the fifth form at an average age of sixteen. This examination qualifies for matriculation at any English university provided that the credit standard is reached in the subjects prescribed by the individual university.

5. *Curriculum.*—With the exception of some fifteen boys who, with the special permission of His Majesty's Inspector and as an experiment in education, have been excused French and mathematics (other than arithmetic and trigonometry), all pupils take the full course in religious knowledge, English, French, geography, elementary mathematics, experimental science in relation to agriculture, history and drawing, and for girls, needlework. Latin is taught only to selected pupils. The few pupils who remain at school after passing the School Leaving Certificate examination are prepared for the Higher School Leaving Certificate examination of the Northern Universities Joint Board and for open scholarships. The fact that in recent years the school has won scholarships at the Universities is a proof that the standard of work does not suffer from the imposition of a rural bias.

6. *Rural bias.*—While the curriculum is said to be similar to that of the ordinary secondary school recognised by the Board of Education, a very strong rural bias is given to science and manual work, and in a lesser degree to domestic economy and geography. It is important to bear in mind that this rural bias is not given with the specific object of training workers for the land, but for the reason that the rural environment of the school offers many problems which properly serve as the foundations of its teaching. On the other hand, the boy who completes the full course obtains a thorough grounding in the sciences on which the farmer's practice is based. The main object, however, is to bring the pupil into harmony with his environment, to train him to find interest and instruction in the common problems of the countryside, and to strengthen his initiative, self-reliance and powers of application.

7. *The garden as a laboratory.*—The school stands in an estate of nine or ten acres, two of which are under cultivation. For the last seventeen years the garden has been looked upon as an outdoor laboratory and much experimental work in manuring, cropping, and other agricultural practices has been carried out. The staff has found it somewhat difficult to construct a syllabus with a rural bias which will not handicap a boy who wishes later to read higher pure science at the university. Until 1919 the attitude of the universities was a serious obstacle as they insisted on some branch or branches of pure science for matriculation. In 1919, however, Durham University approved a special syllabus in experimental science in relation to agricultural life as a science subject for the School Leaving Certificate examination, and agreed to allow a credit pass in this subject to count for matriculation. Since then other universities have fallen into line with Durham. The present science master was appointed at about this time. He is a man of considerable ability, town-bred and town-educated, who was severely wounded during the War and was urged by his doctors to live in the country. It was after his appointment and after the change in the attitude of Durham University that the school really developed on proper rural lines. The science master has co-ordinated garden work with that in the laboratory. In fact, he regards

his garden as an extension of his science rooms. The whole content of the chemistry, physics and biology syllabuses is systematically interwoven and carried forward as one progressive course and not as three subjects merely touching each other at long intervals. The science master has twenty-eight actual teaching periods of forty to forty-five minutes each a week. In addition to this, he supervises the garden work with the aid of the manual training instructor. Neither the headmaster nor the second master looks upon this course as it stands as final. They are constantly exploring and testing new sources of material and fresh avenues of approach. The headmaster teaches geography throughout the school and finds that this subject offers exceptional opportunities of emphasising the importance of agriculture and of progressing from a knowledge of local climate, crops, occupations and so forth to an understanding of the lives of people in other parts of the world. The syllabuses are given in Appendix F.*

8. *Arts and crafts.*—All boys up to the School Leaving Certificate age spend one and a half hours a week in the workshop and learn to use both wood and metal work tools. Much useful apparatus for the garden and laboratory is made by the boys. The younger boys in the school learn basket-making; and at the time of our visit the introduction of weaving had been sanctioned. Throughout the two winter terms the workshop is open one night a week and the boys are thus able to use the tools in order to advance their hobbies or to make useful articles for their homes. The girls are taught cookery, laundry work, needlework, housewifery and butter-making. The domestic mistress took a special course of two months in dairying at a farm school, and is thus fully competent to deal with this branch of the training. The work in the dairy is linked up with the science course, and the science master explains to the pupils the action of harmful and beneficial bacteria. Drawing and painting are very popular. Boys and girls paint very effectively on wood and make their own designs for the colouring of boxes, candlesticks and bowls; the younger children do raffia work.

9. *Physical training.*—The amount of time given to physical drill is much below what is usual, the headmaster holding that gardening, games and manual work give enough exercise during the week. It was pleasing to see masters and mistresses, boys and girls joining in folk-dancing and thoroughly enjoying it.

10. *General activities of the staff.*—The staff carries on educational activities in the town and neighbouring villages. The headmaster is a member of the council of village institutes for men, the secretary to the parish further education committee, and vice-president of the bee-keepers association of the county. He and his staff, both masters and mistresses, are included in the list of lecturers for the further education committee. The science master gives courses of lectures on agriculture in the villages near

* For Irish rural school syllabuses, *see* Appendix G.

the school. The mistresses take a share in the organisation of women's institutes and girls' clubs and lecture to their members. The local games clubs both for men and women owe much to the staff of the school. The school orchestra, in which the school children are outnumbered by the parents and the old pupils of the school, gives entertainments to the public.

11. *A similar school in a different setting.*—The second rural school lies in a moorland parish in the same county, but in a different area. The market town has a population of 3,500 and lies about a thousand feet above the sea level, while around it the moors rise to a considerable height. Apart from a few lead mines, farming is the only industry; on the high moors sheep, on the lower lying grounds cattle are grazed. The farms are widely scattered and the farmers do not make much more than a bare living. The town is the terminus of a small branch railway line. Both the farmers and the towns-folk augment their incomes by letting lodgings in the summer months to visitors from industrial areas.

12. *Early difficulties.*—The inhabitants of such a countryside are usually conservative to a degree and opposed to education, in which they can see little benefit. The school was originally an ordinary elementary school. Some few years ago it was converted into a secondary school, a good school building was constructed, and ground was acquired for playing fields and gardens. Before his present appointment the headmaster was chief physics master in an urban technical school, in which apprentices were trained for shipbuilding and electrical engineering. For reasons of health he was driven to seek a living in the country. He is a trained teacher with a good science degree and a man of impressive personality. It is of interest to note that he is a Justice of the Peace. His staff, both men and women, are all graduates and all trained teachers. None had any special rural experience before joining the school, but the headmaster insists on all identifying themselves with the rural and social activities of the school. At the opening of the secondary department, he laid down three main principles for his own guidance. He must achieve academic efficiency, he must give a rural bias to the school work, he must make the school an educational centre for the whole parish. The townsfolk sent their children to the school willingly; but the response from the farmers was most disheartening during the early years. The headmaster worked hard to win the confidence of these farmers. He visited them in their homes, talked to them about their work and invited them to lantern lectures of general interest in the school hall. Under the guidance of the agricultural department of a university college he studied the needs of their barren pastures and at the end of a series of lectures on topics of general interest ventured to address them on farming. At first, it was chiefly the girls of the farmer class who came to the secondary department as their mothers seemed to think that secondary education conveyed something of gentility. To their amazement their daughters learned both to keep house and to make butter better than their mothers.

This apparently convinced the farmers of the value of education. Their boys now attend the school freely over the compulsory age of fourteen.

13. *Education from environment.*—The headmaster is convinced that school subjects such as science and geography should be illustrated from the environment of the school. Thus in geography much of the work is done out of doors and is combined with simple survey work. The general science course leads up to botany and biology as the chief subjects of study. Chemistry and physics are taken as separate subjects, but the syllabuses are so worked out as to fit in very closely with botany and biology. In the chemical laboratory substances found near at hand are studied; such as the local water supply and the rocks of the neighbourhood, the soil and the manures suitable to it; and the school garden is regarded as an extension of the laboratory. From time to time farmers send samples of soil for mechanical and chemical analysis and ask the headmaster's advice on suitable manure for their pastures. In some cases, at the request of a farmer, the headmaster and his boys have manured stretches of pasture with considerable success. In the workshop the boys learn work which will be useful to them on the farm. They make full-sized gates, hen houses, troughs and such like things. They are allowed to take these articles home for their parents' use. The domestic science course for girls is spread over five years and includes cheese and butter-making, with the result that the district now receives better prices for its butter and cheese.

14. *Adult education.*—The school is responsible for work amongst the adults of the district. The headmaster's lantern lectures led to regular winter courses given by lecturers from the local university. At the request of the local people the headmaster arranged in the winter of 1926-27 for two series of lectures, one on industrial history and the other on the influence of geographical conditions on man. Another interesting feature is the development of allotment gardening. The townsmen had no allotments before this school became popular; now there are many. There is a flourishing allotment association of which the headmaster is the vice-president, and regular lectures are arranged in the school for allotment holders who are now beginning to interest themselves in experimental work. For the benefit of the small mining population a graduate in mining engineering who lives near the school gives lectures on simple science applied to lead mining. These lectures are popular as the miners are interested and hope to rise to higher positions by their newly acquired knowledge.

15. *Townward drift.*—The headmaster points out that in spite of all his efforts his better pupils seek employment in urban areas. He attributes this to economic conditions. If it were a district of arable land, he considers that his school training would enable more people to live in comfort on the land, but this is impossible on these barren upland pastures. His principle of maintaining academic efficiency has resulted in his boys suffering no handicap in competition with the boys of the town schools. In fact, the head-

master holds that the constant practical application of school subjects to the children's environment gives a better intellectual training than the more theoretical courses of ordinary schools.

16. *General activities of the staff.*—The members of the staff play a considerable part in the communal life of the village. The senior mistress has established a large women's institute with two hundred members. These meet in the school buildings and, at a very moderate rent to cover lighting, firing and cleaning, are allowed to use the cookery and needlework rooms. Other members of the staff have been appointed to the hospital and other committees. The local cricket and football clubs are largely run by the younger masters and the old boys of the school. Mistresses and old girls play a prominent part in the badminton and tennis clubs.

17. *Weekly teaching hours.*—It is interesting to note that in both the schools that we have described the actual teaching hours of the staff are distinctly more numerous than those demanded of the masters in Government high schools in the Punjab, while the staffs undertake much more work outside the four walls of the class-rooms. In reality, these two schools, and particularly the latter, are village colleges in the sense in which the term is used in Cambridgeshire.

18. *The training of rural school teachers.*—It is a notable fact that while the school masters and mistresses show a surprising adaptability in dealing with rural education, the principal training colleges, with one exception, remain as urban as ever.* On the other hand, local authorities and the Board of Education afford facilities for teachers to improve their qualifications. At Cambridge, for example, there is an excellent vacation course in rural science for elementary school teachers which is held in the buildings of the Homerton Training College. This course has nothing to do with the University. One of His Majesty's Inspectors is director of the course, and the staff is composed of himself, some of his colleagues, and lecturers from outside. The latter receive a fee of five guineas for each lecture, and are given inspector's travelling and halting allowance during the course. Most of the teachers attending the course pay their own expenses which amount to eight or ten shillings a day, but in some cases the local educational authority pays the teacher's expenses. Precautions are taken to ensure that those most likely to benefit by the course and have a liking for country life shall be admitted. No certificate is given on the completion of the course, and at present no local educational authority insists on attendance as a condition precedent to appointment as headmaster of a rural school, but experience of such a course is generally considered as a strong recommendation. The headmaster of the first school mentioned in this chapter was one of the leading lecturers at this course. Practical work is strongly emphasised. When we visited the laboratory, the men were engaged in such experiments as soil analysis. A most interesting

* For Irish training college syllabuses, *see* Appendix G.

lecture together with a demonstration was given by an inspector on the management of an orchard. The work throughout appeared to be of a high level. The relations between the inspectors and the school masters were friendly and intimate; and we saw no trace of officialism. At Oxford and elsewhere there are university extension courses in the vacation for elementary and secondary school teachers. Some local authorities arrange courses at their own agricultural colleges and farm schools.

19. Among the school mistresses we found a number that had spent time and money at agricultural colleges; and there is a general tendency for school girls to specialise in flower gardening, a delightful and healthful hobby for women. Altogether, England offers much greater facilities for the teacher to improve his qualifications and prospects than does the Punjab, but the refresher courses of last year at several normal schools and the special courses for normal school staffs at Gakhar and Gurgaon indicate that we are alive to the needs of the situation. Another advantage is that the English school master in his two or three years of training acquires not only a keen college esprit-de-corps, but also a keen professional interest. This is maintained in his subsequent career by his association with the National Union of Teachers and by old students' clubs. Above all, the average English teacher finds it easy to adapt himself to rural conditions of work for the simple reason that he enjoys many hobbies and outdoor occupations. Figures are not available, but the number of those who are members of the allotment holders association is legion. The initiative and the adaptability of the teachers in English rural schools are the pivot of progress.

CHAPTER VI.

To build a New Jerusalem in England's green and pleasant land.

Though we have read " England's Green and Pleasant Land " with great delight and benefit to ourselves, and though we regarded it as a great privilege to discuss the problems of rural life with its author and to take tea with his school mistress heroine, we must confess that we had arrived already and independently at the main conclusions which are set forward in this chapter.

2. *Social factors.*—In all progress a spirit of initiative and enterprise are essential. It has often been remarked that the Indian countryside lacks the initiative of educated men and women who will guide development and progress. The religious organisations of the Indian communities do not offer to graduates the same opportunities of work and influence as fall to a clergyman in England or to a minister in Scotland. There is not again, the same scope for an Indian medical graduate in the villages as is afforded to a medical practitioner in the English countryside. The Indian landowner does not usually join a university; and he is only too often illiterate. In the absence of this support, a very heavy burden of responsibility rests on the Indian teachers in rural schools. In the two preceding chapters we have indicated with what ease and with what success many teachers in England, though born and bred in town surroundings, have adapted themselves to rural conditions, and how great is the part which they play in the several activities of the countryside. The inevitable conclusion is that progress in the rural areas of India depends very largely on the wise selection and the suitable training of the village teachers of the future. Initiative and enterprise are therefore essential, and these qualities were developed in the peasantry of England and the Punjab during the time of the War. Equally important is it to break down the isolation of village life. In the material sense, village conditions in England have been transformed in recent years by the motor 'bus and by wireless.

3. *Signs of change.*—There is now a new spirit abroad in the English countryside, and perhaps the most visible sign of this new spirit is the village hall, generally called the institute. These are often memorial halls, and few better war memorials could have been chosen, as the institute should be the embodiment of good-will, comradeship and service. In an institute are centred many activities, both profitable and pleasurable, such as dancing, whist-drives, basket-making and lectures on poultry-farming and such like topics. A mere glance at the notice board is a good indication as to whether or not the village is a place of happiness; and there are great differences between villages. In places where there is no hall, the village school sometimes takes its place, but this substitute is not always appreciated by the villagers.

4. *Women's institutes.*—In our preliminary talk with Sir Michael Sadler, we were surprised to be told that women's institutes should form the most important part of our inquiry, but the many men and women of varying social rank and political views with whom we discussed the matter, were almost unanimous in confirming Sir Michael Sadler's advice. The women's institutes, of which there are already thousands in the land, are generally regarded as the greatest social and educational movement of the century in Great Britain. The history of the movement has already been written, and can have no place in this report; we are concerned only with the institute in being. For future guidance it should be recorded that the movement has succeeded only through the devoted enthusiasm of a group of talented ladies who understand the village woman and the dead monotony of her life.

5. The village beer house has been for centuries the countryman's chief refuge from monotony. At its lowest possible level, the women's institute gives a similar release under far better conditions. The women wash and dress themselves as for an occasion; they drink tea together and maintain a code of manners; they gossip and compare experiences and they return to their homes more bravely and brightly to the daily round and common task. This in itself is education and much more than that. There is also the pleasing innovation of "Husbands' Day", when the married men put on collars and society manners, sit on the edges of chairs, and are entertained by their wives with the help of the lady of the manor; this in itself has raised the status of women. Nor is the intellectual aspect forgotten. At one meeting we listened to an Oxford don lecturing in simple language on local life in the stone, bronze and iron ages, and telling how flint needles and bronze safety pins had been dug up in the fields where their husbands worked. We had a talk with him, and he assured us that the intelligence of the women increased with continued membership. On another occasion when no outside lecturer was available, the blacksmith's wife delivered an address on her husband's work. Another feature of the institute is the annual excursion by char-a-banc, whereby the minds of the members are enlarged by travel. There is also an economic influence. At the institute women may learn modern ways of working and may even co-operate in marketing dairy and garden produce; thus not only is their earning power increased, but they come to expect more efficient work from their menfolk. The goal of the leaders is the government of the institute by the members themselves. It is only here and there that institutes can function without the guiding hand of an important lady. The village schoolmistress is however a personage in the institute as she usually possesses organising ability and secretarial skill. Progress towards the goal of self-government is however rapid. One of the greatest of the leaders told us gleefully of a meeting when the butcher's wife prodded the colonel's wife in the ribs and said "It is up to you to move an amendment". This is practical civics. Some may consider these developments trivial; but to those who knew the pre-war village they are amazing.

6. *Men's clubs.*—In a tour through England many men's clubs may be visited but they are more common in mining than in agricultural areas. They are often the outcome of the War, and have been founded under the auspices of the British Legion, the Comrades of the War, or the Young Men's Christian Association though the last association appears more fitted for work in towns. For a diversity of reasons, these clubs are unlikely to achieve the same success or to exercise the same influence as the women's institutes. As a general rule they are mainly recreational, and not rarely their patron saint is Bung. There are, however, some good clubs, and a brief account of one may prove suggestive. It lies on the border of the area described in "England's Green and Pleasant Land".

7. *Organisation and finance.*—The movement was started by the ex-soldiers of the parish as a part of the village war memorial. Their preference at first was for a Red Triangle Club. The rector supported the founding of the club, and is still interested in its welfare. The strongest personality is the village postmaster, an old man of intellect and ideals who acts as secretary. The village innkeeper is not antagonistic. The club is self-governing and self-supporting and is housed comfortably in a combination of army huts. Capital outlay was met from funds raised by fetes and bazaars, while the recurring expenditure is met from annual subscriptions and from the two billiard tables which are a strong attraction. Lads over sixteen pay three shillings a year; men over eighteen pay five; and boys between the ages of fourteen and sixteen are admitted as probationers provided that they have left school. The membership is large.

8. *Activities.*—The activities of the club are both recreational and directly educational. The village games are organised by the club, which has its own playing fields and tennis courts. In addition to billiards, minor indoor games are also played. From time to time there are whist-drives and cinema shows. The club also has a reading room, which serves as a local centre for the county library. As the club is in touch with the extension system of the University of Oxford, there are lectures and classes in several subjects during the winter. The average attendance at the open lectures in 1925-26 was one hundred and twenty-three; and at the classes, twenty-three. The educational authority of the county gives a grant towards these courses; and a small admission fee is levied as all are agreed that this makes for regular attendance. A local employer of labour, himself a member of the club, assured us that his men were harder and more intelligent workers through the influence of the club. In view of the part played by this club in the parish it is important to attempt an analysis of the causes of its success. The club was founded at a happy time when the men of the village, though glad to be home, began to miss the camaraderie of soldiering. The rector and the postmaster are village leaders far above the average. Oxford is within motoring distance and the Rural Community Council of the county provided

a car. There is also that curious age-old understanding between the peasantry of the county and the scholars of the University of Oxford.

9. *County libraries.*—Another institution which tends to break-down intellectual isolation is the county library, which is subsidised very generously by the Carnegie Trust. It has its branches in most villages and so reaches large sections of the rural population. It is thus achieving national importance. Organisation varies somewhat from county to county. Most often the library and the official in charge are to be found at the head-quarters of the education authority of the county. The general policy is to attempt to supply any non-fictional book which may be desired, and to guide taste in the reading of fiction. The importance attached to the juvenile section varies. In one county we found an excellent advanced student's and teacher's section. The method of distribution varies according to local conditions. In one place there is a beautifully equipped library motor van. Elsewhere, quarterly boxes are sent by carrier or taken out in the rural community council's car. This last seems to suggest that a useful function of any community council would be the organisation of transport for the various workers in its area. Perhaps the most important factor is the local librarian. Those who are experienced in the supervision of this and similar movements feel somewhat strongly that it is inadvisable to organise them in connexion with the school teacher and the school buildings as villagers are averse from returning to what used to be unpleasant associations. On the other hand, when it came to our asking the causes of success of the library in any particular village, the commonest answer was that the village teacher-librarian was very good. In all the cases into which we inquired, the wastage of books (except for reasonable wear and tear) was surprisingly small; this again was generally attributed to the efficiency of local librarians and to the honesty of villagers. An important contributary cause is the careful treatment demanded even for the text-book and exercise book in the English elementary school.

10. *Popular books.*—The lists of books required for local libraries make interesting reading. "Sheeking" is very popular; but county librarians often hold that those who might never have read at all have been induced to read by starting on books whose literary value is more than doubtful. There is a strong demand from villagers in all parts for books of travel and high adventure in far-off lands; and polar exploration, above all, grips them. There are many whose reading is subsidiary to some purpose or hobby, a great tribute to the value and inspiration of the village teacher's work. Thus there is a demand for books on bee-keeping, or the making of musical instruments and wireless sets. In a lonely moorland hamlet, a carpenter, in collaboration with the village teacher-librarian for purposes of explanation and experiment, learnt the art of French polishing by reading a book obtained through the county library, and thus increased his income and his status.

11. *Flower shows and sports.*—The flower show is an annual event in many villages with sports in the afternoon and a dance at night. Often there are prizes for school children's exhibits and parents are at times surprised by their excellence. Cottage gardening and sundry other crafts are benefited directly by these competitions and the whole village is pleasurably excited. Games are popular, but it is surprising to learn that space for playing them is not always available. We were glad to find that the Playing Fields Association is lessening this difficulty and local educational authorities are beginning to realise their responsibility towards the recreation of those who have left school.

12. *National savings.*—For years in many village schools the penny bank system has flourished, but a far greater organisation is now handling with great success the problem of encouraging habits of thrift among the children of the land. The National Savings Committee now undertakes the organisation of the sale of national saving certificates, and the schools play a very important part in the movement. The committee, in its desire to enable the savings movement to achieve the very best possible results in this field, has appointed a school advisory committee whose function it is to give counsel as to the best methods of realising that purpose. This advisory committee is a small body of experts who are in close touch with all phases of educational activity. In December, 1924, the latest period for which the figures are before us, 20,364 savings associations had been established throughout the country. Of these, 11,399 or 56 *per cent.* were school associations. Many of these school associations have made remarkable accumulations of money but, interesting and praiseworthy as are such achievements, it is probable that the best results are measured in terms of character rather than of cash. We have spoken elsewhere of our belief that a proper respect for books has been developed in the English elementary school and persists through life. Similarly, we believe that the habit of thrift which is being inculcated by school savings associations will make for thrift in later life, and that the habit of thrift makes for the happiness of the individual and the stability of the country. In England the national savings movement is creating a large number of small capitalists. Of the hundreds of millions that have been saved, only about one-third of the amount has been withdrawn in spite of the very lean years through which the workers have been passing. In their propaganda for schools the committee impresses upon parents and children the great importance of saving against the time of leaving the elementary school so that an outfit can be purchased for the young worker or that he may be able to pay for his further education. The committee has also worked-out a number of model schemes of savings. Two of these, which are particularly suitable for schools, are given in Appendix H.

13. Had such activities as these been organised in every village, "England's Green and Pleasant Land" might never have been written. As it is, there are villages whose housing conditions are

so bad and life so dreary that men dawdle over their field work in order to postpone the return to their homes.

14. *Rural community councils.*—In the earlier post-war period the general idealism and desire to help the countryside led to the multiplication of official and non-official agencies which had as their purpose better conditions of life in all its forms. The result was a certain amount of confusion with much over-lapping and many gaps. A number of people who were interested in rural organisation regretted this confusion and felt the necessity of a wider discussion of the problems involved. In 1921, a conference of representatives of different activities, both statutory and voluntary, decided that a better co-ordination of effort was required. This was the genesis of rural community councils. These councils consist of representatives of all county bodies, whether statutory or voluntary and possess consultative as well as advisory functions, but they have no power of interference with the work or management of any of the bodies which are represented on the community council. A detailed description of a rural community council at work in England is given as Appendix I.

15. *The village college.*—Earlier in this chapter we have spoken of the part played by the village hall in village life, and it is obvious that the activities co-ordinated by rural community councils require buildings for their head-quarters. In such villages as have halls, these are used for the purpose. The Carnegie Trustees however report that there are hundreds of villages still without halls and in such places the school is often used. This has led to an interesting proposal in Cambridgeshire. Before we left for England we were urged to study the village college system of Cambridgeshire. On our arrival in England Mr. Tydeman and the author of "England's Green and Pleasant Land" gave us similar advice. The county educational authorities, however, informed us that their proposal for a village college had been held up on financial grounds. In reading the literature on the subject we find that the Cambridgeshire idea of the village college is not dissimilar from our own visualisation of what the village school and the village schoolmaster might be to the villagers of the Punjab. In fact, it is probably true to say that we have already developed the germ of the village college in the Punjab and are therefore ahead of Cambridgeshire in the matter. On the other hand, the Cambridgeshire plans are more definite and complete. We make no apology for quoting at length from the Cambridgeshire Educational Secretary's memorandum on the subject.

"All the activities and facilities that already exist in the countryside, both statutory and voluntary, should be brought together in and around a single institution. In Cambridgeshire the aim would be to establish in about ten carefully selected centres where senior schools are already organised, a system of village colleges which would provide for the co-ordination and development of education together with social and recreational facilities, and at the

same time would furnish a community centre in the fullest sense for the neighbourhood. In these centres the higher classes of the isolated elementary school as such, with all the narrower conceptions associated with it, would be absorbed into the larger institution."

An attempt is then made in the report to visualise the buildings of the village college. Part of the buildings would be used for school purposes; the nursery schoolroom which would also serve for use as an infant welfare centre; a primary school for the small children resident in the central village; and a secondary school (with a strong rural bias) for those between the age of ten and sixteen who would be collected from the tributary as well as from the central village. Rooms would also be provided for handicrafts, for domestic science (cookery, laundry, housewifery, etc.), and for general elementary science. The village hall would be available during the day time as an assembly hall for the school, and in the evening time for lectures, dramatic displays, dances and public meetings. There would also be reading rooms well stocked with a permanent nucleus of books as well as with books supplied each month by the Cambridgeshire county library. These rooms would be used by every student from the youngest to the oldest. Other rooms would be available for agricultural education and would contain charts and specimens to be used jointly with the science laboratory, with the object that the village college would thus form a centre for agricultural and horticultural education. Provision would also be made for the education of adults, for the meetings held by the several associations connected with the village and for meetings of public authorities. Facilities would also be available for indoor and outdoor recreations. The report then proceeds as follows:—

"The village college as thus outlined would not create something superfluous, nor would it be a spectacular experiment and a costly luxury. It would embrace all the various vital but isolated activities in village life—the school, the village hall and reading rooms, the evening classes, the agricultural education courses, the women's institute, the boy scouts and girl guides, the recreation ground, the branch of the county library, the athletic and recreation clubs—and would bring them into harmonious relations with each other and thus create a new institution for the English countryside. Though the vitality and freedom of the constituent elements would be preserved and not destroyed, the unity thus formed would be a new thing. It would be a true social synthesis; it would take existing and live elements and bring them into a new and unique relationship and invigorate the whole life of the community.

"The village college would change the whole problem of rural education. The isolated and insulated school, which has now no organic connexion with higher education, would

form part of an institution in which the ultimate goal of education would be realised. As the community centre of the neighbourhood, the village college would provide for the whole man, and would abolish the duality of education and ordinary life. It would be normally a means of training for the art of living, but also the actual place in which life is lived. The dismal dispute about vocational training would not arise as education and living would be equated. It would be a visible demonstration in stone of the continuity and never-ceasingness of education. There would be no 'leaving school' as the child would enter at the age of three and leave the college at death. The village college would have the great advantage of being a local institution, and as such would enhance the quality of actual life as it is lived from day to day. It would not be divorced from the normal environment of those who frequent it or from that greater educational institution, the family.

"We are witnessing in this country the partial disappearance of the old landowners. The responsibilities of leadership and the maintenance of liberal and humane traditions in our squireless villages will fall on a larger number of shoulders. The village college will be the seat and guardian of humane public traditions in the countryside, the training ground of a rural democracy. Without some such institution, a rural community consisting largely of agricultural workers, small proprietors and small farmers will not be equal to the task of maintaining a civilisation worthy of the countryside. The alternative would be a countryside, prosperous perhaps but narrow and materialistic, without native distinction and charm, and with no instinct for even the popular arts."

16. *A brief summary.*—Such are a few of the helpful and healthful activities which are now permeating village life in England. The hitherto isolated school, with its staff insufficient in quality as well as in quantity, with its dingy buildings, with its lifeless and meaningless instruction, is now taking its proper place in a suitably organised system of education and is intimately linked up with the central school. This co-ordination of educational effort has attracted to the service of the village schools a better type of teacher who is prepared to devote himself to the uplift of rural life, and has rendered possible a wider curriculum and better buildings. With a new spirit that is now abroad, the training of the children is being adapted to rural conditions, and thus is becoming less of a mystery and more of a reality. Education thus tends to become an integral part of family life and, even more important, of village hopes and aspirations.

17. In its turn, education is being enriched and vitalised by the breaking down of village isolation, by easier and cheaper communications, by happier intercourse between man and man in the clubs

and institutes, by improved facilities for physical and intellectual recreation, by the lectures and discussions, by the books and libraries. In past centuries the English countryside has contributed much to the strength, the prosperity and the happiness of England. In recent years, there has been a most unfortunate dwindling of the countryside, a drift to the towns by its young men and women with initiative and enterprise, and in consequence England has suffered most grievously. It has been our privilege to witness the beginnings of a new era, of a new awakening of village life. If success is achieved in the years that are to come, we are convinced that the main agent of success will be the women of the countryside and that the main instrument of success will be the women's institutes.

CHAPTER VII.

What is and what might be.

(i) *The training of village teachers.*

The selection of teachers.—From the preceding chapters it is clear that the training of the village teacher should take its rightful place in the forefront of reform. No educational system can succeed without good teachers. Revised schemes and syllabuses, new text-books, a modified curriculum will have but little effect unless and until the teacher is in sympathy with the changes and understands clearly their purpose. It is not possible to overhaul an educational system by tinkering with details. The root of the matter is first the selection of men, and then the duration and nature of their training. A teacher in a village school who has an urban outlook and is out of sympathy with the villager and his conditions of life cannot be expected to exercise much influence in a village community. He teaches subjects imposed by external authority and not understood by the villager; he is not paid by the villager; and, often being strange to village interests, he is unable to play a leading part in the life of the villager. Mr. A. I. Mayhew, late Director of Public Instruction, Central Provinces, has given a definite lead in the direction of the proper selection of village teachers:—

> "If the teacher is to be recognised as a decorative and useful member of the community, a real part of its economic and cultural life, he ought to be a local man, belonging to a caste or class with traditions and associations that predominate in the area, and he should be selected by the community he is to serve." *

The preference often given to "matriculation-failed" candidates or matriculates over vernacular middle passed candidates for admission into normal schools on the ground of higher academic qualifications is inadvisable. The health, physique, caste and domicile of candidates deserve more consideration than is given at present; and a more methodical rejection of unsuitable candidates should be carried out earlier in the course than is usually the case. In the Punjab efforts are now being made to guide selection in accordance with these ideas. Heads of vernacular training institutions have been advised rigorously to weed out at the conclusion of the first term those students who appear to them unfit to become village teachers. In the past, the age of admission to the junior vernacular teachers' course was sixteen. It has now been raised by one year so that the boys shall be of a more suitable age for the course of training, and that they shall have the opportunity of serving as pupil teachers for a while in local middle schools, thus

* The Education of India, Arthur Mayhew, Faber and Gwyer, page 249.

giving to the district staff a chance of studying their merits before selecting them for admission to a normal school. Until this year, there has been no upper age-limit for students admitted to the senior vernacular course, but experience has shown that many of the men are too set in their ways and methods to profit by the training, and are also physically unfit for many of the activities now expected of them. A maximum limit of thirty-five years has therefore been imposed. If and when vernacular high schools are established, the question of the qualifications of candidates will require reconsideration.

2. *Length of training.*—A matter of the utmost importance is the duration of the course of training. The middle passed boy enters the normal school in the early hot weather. Almost before he has settled down to his new surroundings, the summer vacation is upon him. When that is over, the final examination is within sight, and cramming for it dominates his every thought and action. Each year, the staff has to begin all over again with completely raw material; thus, it is difficult to begin work quickly, and even more difficult to select community leaders from among the new entry. The only solution is an eighteen months' or a two years' course. Those who have had experience of training institutions in England and in India appreciate greatly the value of the second year. The mere position of seniority gives to the boy a feeling of responsibility and grownupness, while his civic sense has been developed to a remarkable degree. Moreover, the year has formed its traditions which should be fully maintained; and if these be good, the tone of the institution becomes established.

3. At the moment, the institution of a two-year course for junior vernacular teachers would entail an additional expenditure of large sums of money, would reduce training accommodation by one half, and thus would react adversely on the expansion of vernacular education. Its achievement is therefore beyond the region of practical politics at present, but its necessity should be borne in mind. The prolongation of the training course for senior vernacular teachers, however, presents an easier problem. We suggest that eight hundred senior teachers should be receiving a two years' course each year. The men should be carefully selected, preferably from among junior vernaculars who have done well both in school and out for some three years. By this means, in the course of time, every central and lower middle school in the province should have as its headmaster a man who has received a thorough training and should therefore carry weight in the neighbourhood. In May, 1927, two experimental senior vernacular units were formed at Gakhar normal school. A unit is a class of forty students, which is the maximum possible for effective and efficient teaching. One of these units consists of promising junior vernacular teachers, with two or three years' village school experience, who will undergo a two years' course of training; and the other unit which is to be trained only for one year is made up partly of senior vernacular students who were under training in 1926-

27 and partly of volunteers from among the senior vernacular teachers who have expressed a wish to undergo further training. It is hoped that the number of these special units will be increased next year.

4. *The training curriculum.*—The syllabus for both the junior and senior grades of vernacular training needs thorough revision. As laid down in the prospectus for training institutions, it is disproportionately academic and bears little relation to actual school conditions. It is largely a waste of time to deal with the principles of teaching except in the barest outline or to prepare elaborate lessons requiring apparatus which is rarely or ever available in a primary school. The course of training should concentrate almost entirely on further instruction in school subjects, on the actual craft of teaching and on the problems which will face the young rural teacher when he begins work, such as attendance, the leakage between class and class, the problems of teaching two or more classes at the same time, the infant class, the teaching of reading and writing to beginners, the amount of work which might be expected at the end of a week or a year. Many difficulties and problems could be suggested by those who have had experience in village schools; and these should form the basis of the professional work for both grades of teachers. For senior vernacular students the study of village conditions and educational surveys should be added.

5. *Training in community work.*—This aspect of normal school training, important though it undoubtedly is, is not so important as the attempt to develop a spirit of community service. If the village teacher is to play an important part in village interests and activities, he should be trained to do so. The normal school should therefore form a community in which each student plays his part. Mr. Mason Olcott has given valuable advice in this connexion:—

> "Give instruction regarding community relations . . . . . . to give the students a clearer vision of the possibilities of village life, of the ways to realise them, and of the best means of teaching adults. The work may well include the community relations of the teacher, co-operative societies, Government agencies concerning local welfare, the school as a community centre, the improvement of home life, local resources, economic production and distribution, debt, young men's clubs for nature study or agricultural production. Such topics will also be discussed as the best ways of arousing and keeping interest in learning, the night school, the maintenance of literacy by the reading of useful material, and the ways of getting such material." *

An important feature of every normal school should be the school for adults, in which the students in turn would not only

* Village Schools in India, Mason Olcott, Association Press, page 167.

learn to teach reading, writing and arithmetic, but would also be trained to expound circulars and pamphlets published by the Departments of Public Health, Agriculture, Co-operation and the like. Again, every normal school should have a farm, partly experimental, but mainly as a business proposition. Accordingly, farm accounts and balance sheets, cropping measurements and the sale of produce should form part of the arithmetic course. There should also be a savings club, a co-operative society, a hygiene club, and a boy scout troop. Sports, games and entertainments for villagers, their organisation and control, should be studied and practised. The students should be encouraged to make a bibliography of books and pamphlets suitable for villagers, and should know how to start and to manage a library. Woodwork should form a part of the course, and students should make the articles which they require. Every normal school should possess a lantern, the use of which should be taught and practised.

6. *Handicrafts.*—At the American Presbyterian Mission Training School at Moga, at the School of Rural Economy at Gurgaon, at the Government Normal School at Gakhar and elsewhere, much has been done in these directions and in addition, handicrafts are practised. The development of handicrafts, however, needs much guidance as in many normal schools the teaching has deteriorated into unintelligent imitations of work at Moga and Gakhar. Definite principles have now been laid down for the guidance of headmasters, who have been advised to introduce in the first instance those crafts which are useful to the young man when living alone in the village to which he is posted. These include the making and mending and washing of clothes, cooking and, for those who do not grow beards, shaving. In another category are the odd jobs which a handy man can do about his house, school or garden; these include the mending of windows, the binding of books and the weaving of charpoys. In suitable places, experiments are being made this year with local village industries.

7. *Developments at Gakhar.*—In the newly constituted units at Gakhar an experimental syllabus is being formulated. Professional subjects are being simplified and altered in accordance with the suggestions which have just been discussed. Groups of students are learning to prepare educational surveys in the neighbourhood of the normal school; they are being trained in community welfare work which includes a study of the principles and practice of co-operation, public health and agriculture; they compile for themselves text-books which may be of great value when the question of such books for village schools is under consideration; they are gaining practical experience in the management of libraries, in the use of the magic lantern and in postal work. In the matter of general education, some of the school subjects are being taught up to matriculation level or even further; and a strong rural bias is being given to the teaching of mathematics, science and geography. An important feature of the curriculum is the teaching of "civics," which is supplemented and made real to the stu-

dents by the school being organised on village lines with headmen and so forth. The farm work is being placed on a profit-sharing basis. Physical training should be improved by the appointment of one of the graduates who have recently received a special course in that subject at the Central Training college. Folk dancing and singing are being encouraged and should assist the development of physical training. Special attention is being given to the organisation of games for villagers.

8. *The staffing of normal schools.*—In a report which was written in 1925 and which has provided the basis of the first two chapters of this report, the urgent importance of improving the staffs of normal schools was emphasised. In earlier days, this form of service was looked upon as a backwater into which nobody cared to drift. In consequence, more attention has been paid to the posting of more suitable men to these institutions, and men who have proved themselves sympathetic and successful teachers have been appointed.

9. *Refresher courses.*—Efforts are being made still further to improve the efficiency of the training. The Inspector of Training Institutions, Punjab, who is partly responsible for this report, held a special refresher course at Gakhar before the opening of the new normal school year. This course was attended by the senior masters of all the normal schools staffs except those of the Ambala division. Specially selected officers of the Departments of Education, Public Health, Agriculture and Co-operation were deputed to lecture and to give demonstrations; the Board of Economic Survey lent the services of one of its officials who was carrying out an economic survey in a village near Gakhar; and the Public Works Department sent a lecturer from the Engineering School at Rasul to deal with survey work. Study groups were formed to read up various topics in spare hours, and to read papers or initiate discussions with members of the class. There was physical drill of a strenuous type every morning, and games were played every evening. On one night there was community singing, and on other nights lantern lectures; and on two occasions the North Western Railway Cinema gave a picture show. At the second performance the spectators numbered some fifteen hundred, and villagers trudged in twelve miles to witness this rare treat.

10. The staff of the Ambala division attended at Gurgaon a similar refresher course which was conducted by Mr. Brayne, Deputy Commissioner, and by Mr. Atma Ram, Divisional Inspector of Schools. Both the courses were attended by a number of inspectors of various grades, but it is desirable to hold a special refresher course for the inspecting staff at an early date. It has been pointed out in the first chapter of this report that the several attempts at educational reform in the past failed because the inspectors were not familiar with their purpose, nor were the teachers capable of applying them.

11. *The need of English experience.*—Though refresher courses have their value in enabling those who attend to become familiar

with the aims underlying the reorganisation of the rural educational system, yet the movement would receive an even greater impetus if it were possible for certain selected teachers and inspectors to see what is being done in England. Such an experience would infect them with the admirable spirit of the English village teacher, and would indicate to them the surprisingly high standard of work which is exacted from English elementary school children. These men might be deputed to England for a year; during nine months of the year they could teach under well-selected headmasters in village schools, and the remaining three months could be spent in attending the various courses which are arranged for English *rural* school teachers. This would probably be the most effective way of vitalising rural education in the Punjab. The expense would not be disproportionate to the benefits expected, and it is understood that many English authorities would be willing to employ such men. Other provinces are already sending men to England with scholarships in order to acquire further academic qualifications. The Punjab men would not be deputed with the object of increasing their academic qualifications, but rather of imbibing a new spirit and of learning new methods.

12. *Examination reform.*—In this year's examinations an attempt has been made to guide the work of the normal schools. In the past, individual examiners have been appointed but it has been difficult to guide work through their agency. This year, a committee, originally convened to discuss normal school curricula, decided to set the papers in which questions on rural welfare and other general topics were included. The marking of the papers was carried out in the Director's office and at the Central Training College under the supervision of the members of the committee by examiners specially chosen for their knowledge of the subjects and of village schools, the majority of these being assistant district inspectors who were selected for good work in rural areas. It is hoped that the examiners' report will give valuable information about the work now being done and will suggest new methods of approach in the teaching of the several subjects. A further change in the examination will be necessary because much of the work done cannot be tested on paper. The examination might consist of a written test in each candidate's power of expression, in his knowledge of the several courses, in the prescribed pamphlets and books, and in his opinions on school and village problems; and much should depend also on the considered judgment of the headmaster and his staff on each student's work and teaching capacity and on his value as a member of the community.

13. *The rural school curriculum.*—The better of the normal schools are already experimenting in matter and method and have begun to collect examples for arithmetic and suitable matter for reading and composition. The proposed two-year course will give much more opportunity for this work of research. Thus, after a year or eighteen months, it should be possible to consider the revision of the curricula and the text-books for vernacular schools.

It may then be advisable to form a committee to deal with these matters in the light of new experience. The terms of reference should make it clear that the curriculum should be the same for all primary schools, urban or rural. The past experience of zamindari schools indicates this contention, which is also in accordance with expert opinion in England. The difference between urban and rural school work should be in the *application* of the curriculum; that is, in the methods of teaching, the use of examples, the problems solved, the matter read.

14. *First fruits.*—When this chapter was drafted more than ten months ago in the form of skeleton proposals, it was laid down that three of these proposals were of immediate urgency and capable of provincial but comparatively easy application. These were the provision of a new type of senior vernacular teacher, the thorough overhaul of the whole normal school system, and the consideration of the primary curriculum together with the matter and method of teaching within it. It will be seen from the earlier paragraphs of this chapter that experiments have already been made in the provision of a new and a better type of senior vernacular master; and that the normal school system has been examined and altered in several ways. Normal school staffs and students are collecting material and carrying out experiments in connexion with the improvement of primary school curricula and methods. Much of the spade work has therefore been completed, but much will depend on the progress of the next few years if a sound measure of success is to be achieved.

(ii) *Village activities.*

15. *The rural community board.*—The second part of our task, the study of beneficent institutions at work in the English countryside, proved extremely interesting and much of what we saw seems to us of the greatest importance to the Punjab. This province is fortunate in having a Rural Community Board at headquarters under the chairmanship of the Hon'ble Minister for Education, and district community councils in touch with this central board through the agency of secretaries who are often the district inspectors of schools. Thus, the Education Department is closely concerned in the general education of adults or, as some term it, uplift. It is therefore within the scope of this report to suggest lines of advance in this broader scheme of activity. It has already been stated that such education in a rural area is primarily a matter of breaking down isolation, intellectual and otherwise. We are convinced that the most important agency for breaking down isolation is the Rural Community Board at the headquarters of Government, which in some ways recalls the National Council of Social Service in England; but in our opinion it is a more expert and effective institution, not only because of its personnel but also by reason of its responsibility for financing many of the schemes for rural uplift. This board is helping to break down isolation in more than one way. In the first place, consisting as it does of heads of de-

partments, it has broken down the walls which used to separate the activities of one department from those of another. In the second place, the board is in a position to communicate to all districts new lines of policy and thus to stimulate community work throughout the province.

16. *District community councils.*—The district community council in each district is, or should be, a powerful agent in the removal of isolation. In Gurgaon the printed propaganda of the district community council can be spread to the thirteen hundred villages of the district within a few days. Thus, in times of emergency such as the outbreak of plague, every villager can be quickly informed of steps to be taken for the avoidance of the disease. Again, by means of dramas, magic lantern shows, travelling kinemas and lectures, both entertainment and useful information can be broadcast. To benefit by printed propaganda the adult must either wait for the schoolmaster to read the poster or pamphlet to him or else learn to read for himself. This forges a close link between the district community council and the school for adults, even though the primary purpose of the school may be to develop literacy. But adult education has a vastly wider scope than this, and should be concerned with all that makes for healthier, happier and more prosperous villagers. Thus, it is essential that reading matter of several kinds should be provided; otherwise, the ability to read may turn to rust or be merely harmful because of the venom that is spread by the vernacular press. This need is being met in Gurgaon by a remarkable flow of propagandist literature to the villagers and, as in all other districts, by the institution of village libraries which are managed by the local schoolmasters and are usually accommodated in the schools. The supply of suitable literature for these libraries is limited, but the Rural Community Board and the Education Department not only provide money grants for the establishment and development of such libraries, but are also actively engaged in the translation and preparation of books which should appeal to villagers. Another function of the district community council which is closely connected with adult education should be the provision of transport for those who visit the district for welfare purposes.

17. *The school, the natural centre of activity.*—As in England so in India, there is need for a building around which the district community council's local activities shall centre, but in only a few villages is there any such building except the school. Thus, where district community councils are active and effective, the village schools are already taking upon themselves something of the aspect of the Cambridge 'village college.' It is desirable, therefore, that in all new school buildings provision should be made for the village reading room. It seems advisable also that district community councils should be put into touch with normal and other schools of all grades in order to advise them on the needs of the locality; in particular, they should advise in the matter of adult education in the broader sense of general uplift.

18. *Men's clubs.*—Until village halls or other suitable rooms can be built, boys' schools should serve as centres for men's institutes or clubs. The most satisfactory members of these clubs at first would probably be the old boys of the schools and the pupils of adult schools. This experiment might be attempted in a number of places. It is possible that at first a little pressure will be necessary to obtain members; but if the clubs are properly organised they will soon attract the people. Men's clubs should provide indoor and outdoor games and educational opportunities of many kinds; they should also serve as loud speakers for the Publicity Department or any other department which has anything to say to the villager. The district community council should take steps to have a part of the shamlat set aside for club playing fields.

19. *Farmers' clubs.*—In connection with the village club or apart from it, there might be farmers' discussion groups and young farmers' clubs. We venture to make these suggestions because, in the course of our discussion with the Ministry of Agriculture in London, we noted the great importance which is attached to these clubs in England. Young farmers' clubs are often formed among school children with the schoolmaster as secretary. A "patron" sometimes advances money in England for the purchase of stock; co-operative banks might serve as "patrons" in Punjab villages. The organisation of these would seem to be a function of district community councils.

20. *Agricultural propaganda.*—The Ministry of Agriculture in England is extremely active in propaganda work, and the schools serve as a channel for publicity. By means of discussion groups and young farmers' clubs and by the agency of the schools much propaganda work could be done on behalf of the Department of Agriculture; but it is for that department, in consultation with the district community board, to decide the nature of the propaganda and the form which it should take.

21. *Thrift.*—In the sixth chapter of this report, we have spoken of the activities of the national savings committees in England. It is not for us to say whether Post Office certificates or co-operative banks are the best agencies for establishing thrift societies in the countryside; that is for others to decide. We feel convinced, however, that the school should inculcate the habit of thrift. Already, schoolmasters are saving considerable sums of money by the promotion of thrift societies in certain divisions; for example, the schoolmasters of the Jullundur division are saving tens of thousands of rupees a year by this means. It is unlikely that primary school children in villages could save anything, but the experiment might be tried in middle and high schools. Here, again, the district community council could give valuable assistance.

22. *Scouting in rural life.*—The Scout movement has spread to rural areas with the result that there are now more scouts in villages than in the larger towns. We appreciate the excellent work which the movement is doing. The junior Red Cross societies, and possibly other bodies, are also doing good work; but there is a great

danger of overlapping and confusion. It is for consideration whether these various activities could not all be brought under the Scout movement which has a highly developed organisation; and national savings and young farmers' clubs might be linked with it. Captain Hogg informs us that several of the courses for badges have a direct bearing on rural life. All scouts outside of our large towns should be encouraged to work for these badges. We venture to suggest that Captain Hogg should meet the Rural Community Board and discuss the application of these courses in the most effective way to Punjab conditions.

23. *Education at melas.*—In many parts of the Punjab melas are combined with cattle and agricultural shows, but the educational aspect deserves greater attention. The district community council might organise the agricultural show at each mela with a number of prizes for crops, garden produce, cattle, ploughing, for school gardens and farms and for the cleanest well in the village or the best sanitated village in the tahsil and so forth. In many places such work is already attempted, but there is room for much fuller organisation and for further development. There should be lantern and kinema shows, games and sports for the jawans who would otherwise be tempted to loaf and to get into trouble. These shows and games could be organised with the assistance of the educational staff. By way of proving the possibility of these last activities the Inspector of Schools, Lahore Division, kindly arranged for the staff and boys of the Government High and Normal School, Gujranwala, to work on these lines at the Diwali fair of 1926 which was held in front of the school. A first-aid post was established, medicine given, water passed round. The boys marched through the fair with their band. Lectures were given to crowded audiences in the school hall, and games were played against the lads of the villages on the school grounds. This experiment has been successfully imitated in several other places. Where there is no special mela, smaller shows on simpler and humbler lines might be organised at some central place for groups of villages. This, again, would seem to be the province of the district community council of the area.

24. *The education of local bodies.*—The anonymous author of "England's Green and Pleasant Land" holds that local self-government fails more often through a lack of knowledge and experience than of good-will. He therefore urges the importance of educating members of such bodies in the problems of local administration, public health, education and so forth. It is open to consideration whether there is not an even greater need for this form of adult education in India than in England.

25. All the proposals made in this chapter were drafted before the time of our visit to Gurgaon. We have read this and other chapters with Mr. Brayne, the Deputy Commissioner of that district. We find that he, working as the head of a district, has arrived at conclusions very similar to those discussed in this report. If officers of two different departments, setting out from two very

different starting points, arrive at similar conclusions, there is reason for supposing that these conclusions have some force.

26. A fitting close to this section of the chapter is an account of the work of the Simla district community council and a bald statement of what has already been achieved in the Ferozepore Jhirka tahsil of Gurgaon. It may surprise some to learn that the Simla district is a backward area. Many of the villages are small, remote and isolated. The villagers are impoverished, verminous and often diseased. The Simla district community council began work in May, 1926. The executive committee consists of four members; a member of the Indian Medical Service presides, the district inspector of schools is the secretary, and one of the two remaining members is a member of the Punjab Educational Service. Its enterprise may be judged from its manifold activities. It has equipped village libraries, it undertakes the supply of literature dealing with agriculture, sanitation and co-operation and of Hindi and Urdu journals, the seasonal notes published by the Department of Agriculture and the monthly co-operative magazine. Lantern slides have been prepared or purchased. The president not only exhibits but prepares kinema films. In Simla itself thirty-five lantern lectures on subjects relating to public welfare were given in 1926. The audiences included the general public as well as school boys; and in some cases a number of ladies also attended. In the villages the secretary has delivered a number of lantern lectures, and in addition has given many informal talks on sanitation, agriculture and co-operation. The masters in charge of libraries have arranged for similar informal talks, which the villagers are beginning to appreciate. Two of the masters at the remote middle school at Kot Khai have been trained in the use of the lantern, and lecture in the neighbouring villages on Sundays and holidays. Another lantern is being sent to the Sabathu area. At two adult schools dancing clubs have been formed among the villagers and are proving very popular. For those who know these pahari villagers it is easy to realise what new interests are being brought into their lives.

27. The report from Gurgaon sets out the hard facts of an amazing development:—

"Seven years ago the tahsil was one of the most backward in the Punjab; neighbouring tahsils despised it and spoke of its inhabitants as apes. To-day the two hundred and twenty-eight villages of this tahsil are all clean; it is probably the cleanest tahsil in Asia. Eight thousand five hundred pits have been dug for village refuse and the making of dung cakes has been greatly reduced; hence the soil has been enriched. There are only thirty-six schools in the tahsil but out of every three children attending boys' schools, one is a girl. Four hundred girls of this one tahsil are attending boys' schools. The people of the tahsil have voluntarily subscribed more than half a lakh of rupees to establish a high school and a scholarship

fund. In addition to this they subscribe regularly to the district scout association and to all other district institutions for the betterment of the people. There are banks in eighty-six villages and one hundred and fifty applications have been submitted for banks to be opened in the other villages. One hundred and ninety-two applications have just been submitted for the opening of schools in the villages not yet favoured with these institutions. In order to release the women from some of their drudgery and enable them to attend better to their children, every village has ordered a bullock-driven flour-mill and these are being made and set up as quickly as possible. All marriages are now recorded in registers maintained for the purpose in every village. In agricultural progress also a beginning has been made. There are one hundred and fifteen Hissar bulls in the tahsil and the people have applied for one hundred and thirteen more on the usual district board terms. There are over one hundred and fifty iron ploughs and the sixty Persian wheels could be indefinitely increased if there was any staff to deal with these vital matters. Seven hundred maunds of 8-A wheat were distributed and sown last autumn and improved sugarcane seed for many acres has just been issued. The improvement in village sanitation has meant that vast quantities of manure have been put into the fields and that the fields in future will get the whole amount of manure that is produced in the villages."

If history be the story of man's rise in the scale of civilization these seven years in the life of Ferozepur Jhirka are of greater note than the seven centuries that came before them.

(iii) *The education of girls and women's activities.*

28. In the last departmental report on education, a somewhat gloomy picture was painted of the position and conditions of girls' education in the Punjab. Though some progress has been achieved in recent years in the development of girls' education in the larger cities of the province, very little progress indeed has been made in rural areas. But the problem is of such vital importance to the life and welfare of the province that we venture to make a few suggestions in this section of this chapter. In rural areas the great need is to find some nucleus on which to build; and it may be that the women's institute will provide that nucleus.

29. *Adult education for women.*—The likeliest starting point would appear to be the welfare work now carried on by Miss Simon, Principal, and Miss Raynor, Superintendent, of the Punjab Public Health School, Lahore, and there are missionary ladies also with a keen knowledge of the Punjabi woman, her speech and her needs. A suitable place would be a well-attended purdah school within easy motoring distance of the headquarters of one of the ladies selected to fill the place of the "Lady Bountiful" of the English village.

The old girls of the school would be the first members of the institution. If possible, there should be a yearly subscription as this would make for regular attendance. The meetings should be attractive and be something of a *tamasha*. There should be informal talks on child welfare, domestic sanitation, nursing, cooking and food values, flower gardening and so forth; lectures might also be given on general matters which interest women and books might be read and discussed. When a few illiterate members have been attracted, an adult school might be formed in connexion with the institute. In some places, handicrafts and co-operative marketing of the results might be attempted. It is possible that such institutes might be developed by the agency of the Co-operative Department. For example, educational and other activities are being encouraged by the members of the ladies' thrift society at Gurdaspur. In England, the institute movement has resulted in women taking a much greater interest in the education of their children; thus, if the movement succeeds in the Punjab, it might be followed by a marked advance in the education of girls as well as boys. Wherever possible, in towns and villages purdah gardens like those at Gurgaon should be established. This can be done by the district community councils working through the district boards. These gardens would provide simple games, draw women together and make it easy for community workers to address them or to work with them in many ways.

30. The greatest and the most difficult task is the education of young married women. Enlightened mothers in the village homes would banish the superstition and vice that too often besmirch rural childhood; in their places there would be health and happiness, and later perhaps a little culture. Such mothers would demand education for their daughters, and their influence would better whole households. The result would be a social revolution of the first magnitude. It will be many years before the ordinary girls' schools of the province can be so developed as to become a power and an influence in the village home. The education of women should be the strongest weapon in the battle with ignorance.

It has been an inspiration to us to witness the efforts which are now being made in England to promote a happy and a prosperous peasantry, and thus to repair some of the evils which were wrought by the suddenness of the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century. Among these evils are the slum life, the sweated labour, the disease and, above all, the weakening of the moral fibre of the race. The Punjab is at the parting of the ways. Let us all take heed of the warnings of history, and remember that both the soul and the might of the Punjab rest in the countryside and in its regeneration.

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APPENDIX A.

Government of the Punjab.
(Ministry of Education).

From

Sir GEORGE ANDERSON, Kt., C.I.E., M.A.,
Under Secretary to Government, Punjab.

To

All Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners, and Divisional Inspectors of Schools in the Punjab.

C. M. No. 233-G., dated the 7th January, 1927.

Sir,

I am directed to address you on the subject of agricultural training in vernacular middle schools in continuation of the correspondence ending with my C. M. No. 1125-G. S., dated September the 20th, 1923.

2. In paragraph 5 of Mr. Richey's C. M. No. 77, dated February 19th, 1919, the capital cost of a three-acre farm for a vernacular middle school was estimated at:—

	Rs.
(a) Land	750
(b) Bullocks (two pairs)	400
(c) Implements	200
(d) Buildings	2,000
(e) Miscellaneous	150
Total	3,500

3. It is felt that a capital outlay of Rs 3,500 on a farm of three acres is somewhat excessive, and it has therefore been decided to reduce the amount to a maximum of Rs. 2,500 for each farm to be started in the future. The following estimates are given as an indication how the reduction can be effected:—

	Rs.
(a) Land (3 acres)	1,050
(b) Bullocks (one pair)	250
(c) Implements	200
(d) Buildings	750
(e) Miscellaneous	150
Total	2,400

4. The Punjab Government (Ministry of Education) is also of opinion that a farm should not be opened in a place where the sinking of a well is likely to be necessary.

I have the honour to be,
Sir,
Your most obedient servant,

(Sd.) G. ANDERSON,
Under Secretary to Government, Punjab.

No. 234-G.

Copy forwarded to the Assistant Inspector of Agriculture, Punjab, Lyallpur, for information.

(Sd.) G. ANDERSON,
Under Secretary to Government, Punjab.

APPENDIX B.

Compulsory Education in the Punjab.

"The capital of a country does not consist in cash or paper but in the brains and bodies of the people who inhabit it." Thus spoke Mr. Fisher, Education Minister of England, in piloting an unprecedentally large educational budget through Parliament at a time when War had bled the country white and retrenchment was the order of the day. And it was in the spirit of these words and in the same grim period that the Punjab Government embarked on two most ambitious schemes of far reaching effect for the amelioration of the masses (1) the introduction of the five years programme for the expansion and improvement of Vernacular Education in rural areas in April, 1918, and (2) the passing of the Punjab Primary Education Act in March, 1919.

I shall here only describe the progress made in compulsory education. The Act leaves the introduction of compulsion to the option of local bodies subject to the sanction of Government. It does not apply to girls and it applies only to boys of more than six and less than eleven years of age. When a local body desires to apply the Act to any area under its administration, it has first to pass a resolution to that effect by at least a two-thirds majority at a meeting specially convened for the purpose. It has then to publish that resolution locally and any person likely to be affected thereby and objecting thereto may within thirty days from its publication send his objection in writing to the local body and the latter shall at a meeting convened for that purpose take the objection into consideration. If no objection is sent within the said period of thirty days or if the objections received having been considered are deemed insufficient by a majority of a two-thirds of the members present at such meeting, the local body submits its proposals to the Local Government, with the objections, if any, which have been sent in and with its decision thereon. On receipt of Government sanction the local body applies the Act. The application is to be submitted (together with the necessary statements in prescribed form in the case of a municipality, or a small town or notified area committee) through the Deputy Commissioner, the Inspector of Schools and the Commissioner. With the previous sanction of the Government the local body may make bye-laws (*a*) generally to carry out the objects of this Act, and (*b*) in particular prescribing—

(*i*) the constitution, duties and powers of the attendance committee;

(*ii*) the conditions under which leave may be granted to boys under section 10 (*d*) and the authority competent to grant such leave.

The first local body in the Punjab which introduced compulsion was the Multan Municipality which would ordinarily have been expected to be the last to take such a forward step, as Multan was then the centre of the most backward part of the province. This was done with effect from 1st April, 1921. There was at first some opposition from a section of the Muhammadan population but when they were convinced that there would be no interference with religion, the opposition soon disappeared and Multan has achieved a success in the working of compulsory education which other parts of the province may well emulate. The Lahore Municipality came next six months later, though, for want of effective supervision, it has not yet been able to make much headway. Fifty more urban areas have since come under compulsion up to date and the reports received indicate marked progress in most cases.

Among district boards, that of Rohtak, under the vice-chairmanship of Rao Bahadur Chaudhri Lal Chand, took the lead by introducing compulsion in six school areas in 1922; then came Lyallpur and Montgomery in the Multan Division with much larger areas and more successful results; and now there are altogether 1,082 rural school areas under compulsion in the twenty-nine districts of the province. A school area for purposes of compulsory education includes all villages within a two-mile radius of the school concerned and, therefore, the number of villages must be several times the number of school areas given here.

Instead of embarking on a scheme of wholesale introduction of compulsion in the whole province or even in a single district, our policy in the Punjab

has been to proceed gradually from small beginnings; to respond to the overtures of those who desire compulsion of their own accord rather than to impose it on those who are unwilling or not fully prepared, to adopt it. This ensures a fairly even advance in the whole province and it enables us to gain experience and consolidate our gains before proceeding further and thus to avoid political or financial difficulties. Our experience has shown that when compulsion has been working for some time in a few areas in any district and people have seen its results, other areas of themselves come forward to apply for it. It is, however, not yet generally known what the chief advantages of compulsory education are. It not only extends the benefits of education to those boys who would otherwise have gone without it but, what is much more important, it ensures the boys remaining at school until they have at least finished the primary school course, so that it is the surest remedy against the appalling wastage that at present takes place in the progress of the children from the infants' class to the end of the primary school course. It is thus the most effective and most economical way of breaking down illiteracy among the masses.

Government has undertaken to contribute, in the case of municipalities and small town and notified area committees half the additional cost subject to a maximum grant of Rs. 5 per annum per head of additional attendance and in the case of district boards the grade percentage of each district fixed for grants for vernacular education.

APPENDIX C.

The Training School at Moga.

1. *From reports of the school in 1922 by W. J. McKee, M.A.*

The aim of the school at Moga is to give an education to selected village Christian boys suited to their rural life and needs with the object of their returning to the villages to help uplift of their own people. In this aim three things are specifically emphasised: the matter of *selection*; the adaptation of the school life and activity, curriculum, etc., *to village conditions*; and the purpose of the education given—the developing of the *individual* for the service of his community.

1. With regard *to selection*, it is clear that an education provided indiscriminately for *all* in a residential school where the parents are able to contribute so *little* towards the cost of keeping and educating the boy, is altogether *too* expensive. For this reason it is necessary to select pupils carefully and to endeavour to secure those who will exert a real influence in their communities when their schooling is finished. Emphasis is placed upon evidence of character and personality and upon mental capacity. At present reliance must be largely placed upon the recommendations of the missionary and school supervisor who send the pupil and upon his previous record in the village day school. However it is hoped that this can soon be supplemented by the use of intelligence tests adapted to India.* Various people are working at this problem, and it is likely that a standardised scale will be available by next year for pupils from four to thirteen years of age. When these scales have been thoroughly tested it should be possible to eliminate much of the wastage that is now so prevalent in residential schools for village children.

2. Regarding the second part of the aim of the school, that the curriculum and school life be adapted to village conditions, it was necessary in the beginning to make a careful study of the social life of the village, so as to determine what type of curriculum would best meet the pupil's needs. This involved a consideration of many things—the activities of village people, and the information needed in order to fit into the village life and to meet the tremendous social and moral needs of the people with a view to bringing about a definite improvement and uplift in village conditions. But information of itself was insufficient. It was also necessary to study the village child to discover his weak and strong points and how the curriculum and school life might contribute in developing his character so that when he returned to the village he would exert a vital influence for good upon the community. His interests, impulses and experiences were also investigated and an effort made to utilise these to the best advantage in his education. Along with this, it was felt that the village child's racial inheritance—his love of song, story and the dramatic picturing of events, the folklore and useful customs of the village—should be used so far as possible.

In all this our goal was to provide an education arising out of the child's experience and environment, using his natural impulses and interests with the object of inspiring and preparing him for real community service. Our effort was to get him to see not only the present needy conditions of the village, but what the village and his own people might become through Christian service, and that he had a peculiar responsibility and privilege in the light of his training to go back and help in their uplift. We can not claim to have accomplished this objective but several things have already been achieved. We have succeeded in getting our graduates to go back to the villages and also there is an enthusiastic desire to give their time and strength for the uplift of their people.

In describing in detail how we are endeavouring to have our curriculum closely related to village life and needs, we shall discuss it under three heads: classroom instruction; character development; and school life.

With regard to classroom instruction, we have felt that the Project Method of teaching is peculiarly fitted for the purpose we have in view, provided efforts are made to find subject-matter related to some problem or

* These are now regularly used in Moga School.

activity of the community. Here the emphasis is not upon a text-book, but rather upon the pupil's environment and the problems that arise in it. In the solution of these problems and the carrying out of the activities in their natural setting, pupils find a need for relevant information, and for the organising of this so that it will accomplish their purposes. The advantage of such a plan is that pupils are carrying on in school the activities of their parents and also the very ones they will probably be engaged in when they leave school. They are meeting the same problems and learning better methods of solving them. They are also learning to use the same method of work that we all use in life; namely, the formation of a valuable purpose; the securing of the necessary information to carry out that purpose; organising that information so as to accomplish our purpose (planning); executing the work according to the plan; and judging the result and determining whether we have accomplished our purpose or not. Whether we prepare a sermon or make a garden, we tend to use this type of procedure.

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This same type of curriculum and method of organisation is used throughout the middle school. The second class has a project on the Village Farm, with all the problems which arise there related to nature study, geography, arithmetic, Bible study, reading and writing (records). The third class has a project on the Village Bazaar (shops) and the fourth class (which completes the primary stage) on the Village and its Relation to the Outside World.

This past year in the 5th grade the major project was in lumbering. Interest was aroused by a new building that was being put up. The boys collected various types of wood, tried to identify them and find out whence they came. The teacher took advantage of this and worked out a full project on the lumbering industry. A project tends to lead on; it branches out more and more and of course that is the way we grow—by enlarging. These boys found that very frequently canals were being used in the bringing down of the lumber from the hills. That led to the study of canals. You can quite easily see how all these branches of study work into a project like that. First of all, there is nature study; in the study of wood and lumber there is a great deal of material for nature study. You have geography related to hills and the lumbering industry, canals, waterways and bringing the lumber to the market. You have arithmetic and in this case the pupils study square measure. You have the opportunity of measuring up the wood, finding how many cubic feet it contains, working out the cost of feeding the wood markets, finding out how it is sold, the actual problems in selling it, etc.

In the 6th grade, pupils had a project on Moga itself. They became interested in that through the sending on of the grain to the Moga grain market. From that they began to study the whole subject of Moga, how it was laid out, how it came into being, its relation to the rest of the Punjab, to the outside world through the sending out of products from Moga and the coming in of products from outside. In connection with geometry work they laid out a plan to scale of the town of Moga.

In the 7th grade, the major project was on the post office and communications. They worked out a great many of the subjects of the curriculum through that interest. The Government code, in the 7th grade, lays emphasis on geography of Australia, South America and Africa in their relation to India. The boys worked out the foreign mail routes, how they were distributed, and through that interest in the postal work, they got a great deal of valuable information about those countries. So with maps, in drawing out those mail routes and the distances travelled. In connection with arithmetic they had the study of the postal savings bank, money orders, etc. My experience has been that people in charge of such institutions, as the post office and the market and places of that kind, are quite ready when a letter is sent from the principal or headmaster of the school, to give pupils every attention and answer their questions and let them see the working of their department.

2. *From a report of the school in 1926 by the Rev. A. E. Harper, M.A.*

The school plant consists of about 55 acres of land, 45 of which are under cultivation, with three wells, two silos and stable for cattle. The buildings consist of a main school building with 9 well-lighted class rooms, an agricultural and industrial room, a main hall, library, and office; 3 hostels; quarters for married students; teachers' houses, headmaster's house; princi-

pal's house; and a model village school building. The value of the present plant is about Rs. 1,75,000.

The staff consists of 3 missionaries, the principal, his wife, and the vice-principal, the headmaster who is theologically trained, 3 teachers with S. V. certificates, four Moga trained and Government certificated teachers; one trained agricultural master, a carpenter and a tailor who teach village home industries and one woman teacher for the women's school. As practically all the needs of the school are met by student labour, there are only three servants employed:—a gardener who helps supervise the primary boys' work in the fields, an old man as assistant gardener, and one sweeper.

The enrolment of the school is about 150, of whom about 25 are in the Normal class, and the remainder are about equally divided between the Middle and Primary departments. Practically all the pupils are boarders. They have nearly all come from extremely poor homes, and usually the parents give little or nothing toward the cost of their education. There are indications, however, that these people are beginning to appreciate the value of education for their children, and are showing themselves more willing to help towards the boys' expenses. The boys come from all over the Punjab, and a few, by special permission, are admitted to the Normal class from other provinces outside the Punjab. The pupils are mainly Christians, though non-Christians are admitted. A women's school is maintained for the wives of the married students and other women of the compound.

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Moga owes much to the encouragement and support of the Department of Education of the Punjab. The school is recognised as an experimental school, and is allowed freedom to work out a curriculum suited to rural conditions, and to use methods often radically different from those of the traditional school. The requirements of the educational code are, however, fully met. Candidates are sent up for the vernacular Final Examination, and the percentage of students passing has been excellent. A special examination based on the Moga normal courses syllabus is given to the normal class graduates, and a special certificate recognised as practically equivalent to the Junior Vernacular training certificate, is granted. The percentage of successful candidates has always been excellent; in 1925 and 1926 it was 100 per cent. A grant-in-aid is given for the main school and the normal class as well as for the agricultural department and a grant was given on the main school building. Beyond this, the Director of Public Instruction and the officers of the educational department have given much-appreciated help through their advice and interest.

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The curriculum which is being evolved is based so far as possible upon the worth while interests of village boys. The changes in the curriculum are, however, being made gradually, and the ordinary course of study is covered in addition to the new curriculum material. The enrichment of the curriculum is along the lines of nature study, health education, hand-work, practical mathematics, more reading and composition, etc. The teachers strive for a minimum of memorising text-book material, and a maximum of observing, discovering, constructing, judging. Moga boys are taught to live a real life in the world in which they find themselves.

A critical observer has thus commented upon the class work* "I have been asked several times after describing the agricultural and trade work carried on in Moga, what curtailment had to be made in the ordinary curriculum to allow of this being done. It will probably come as a surprise to many to be told that not only are all the demands of the Punjab curriculum met with very excellent results but that a great deal more is covered. And this is very largely the result of the Project Method which is adopted throughout the school".

The school endeavours to use those methods of teaching which are based on recent results of the scientific study of educational processes. The so-called "project method" is not used exclusively, but the effort is made to have the point of view on which this method is based, control our teaching as far as possible. Whenever it is possible, we teach through the use of a project:—that is, an activity in which pupils whole-heartedly engage, because they themselves have purposed and planned it. The role of the teacher in

* From a report, by the Rev. O. Thomas of Assam, 1926.

these activities is that of a guide and friend rather than an autocrat. He helps the boys to choose activities that are rich in educational value. He helps them to carry out their purpose efficiently, to gather and master the necessary information, to learn good habits of work, to complete their project, make a permanent record of it, and judge of its success.

Since one of the essential factors of a project is its spontaneity, we cannot have a fixed "project curriculum". Often projects are repeated, but they must always be chosen by the new class...... For instance, the village home project was used most successfully in the first half of class I, for several years; the vegetable shop project was the activity of class IV, in 1925-26; the project on *Moga school* is being taken up by class V in 1926, while the hospital project was carried out by class VI in 1925-26.

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All the teaching is not done by projects. Drill and memorising are not neglected though they are made interesting and vital if possible. Formal methods are often resorted to. Teachers, here as elsewhere, show varying degrees of skill, and do not always grasp the principle or live up to the ideals. Moga is continuing to experiment with and to adopt methods based on educational psychology. Mr. McKee's investigations in the psychology of handwriting were very helpful in improving the teaching. Mr. McKee also worked out an adaptation of the story method for teaching beginning reading. Through the use of this method, all the pupils of class I during the past three years have completed the work of the year with but one exception, and more than half of class I pupils finished two years' work and pass into class III. Further investigations of the psychology of arithmetic and reading are planned for the improvement of our methods of teaching these subjects.

Intelligence tests are made use of in grading pupils, permitting some to advance more rapidly, and eliminating a very few who are found unable to profit by further education. Through the kind co-operation of the Department of Psychology of Forman Christian College, these tests have been administered by students trained under Dr. Rice. The test used has been Dr. Rice's Hindustani Binet-Performance Scale.

The same educational principles prevail in the general arrangements and management of the school. As in the class-room, so in the outside activities, responsibility is placed upon the boys. Each must contribute his share to the common good. The life is kept as simple as possible and close to village conditions. The boys do their own cooking, washing and mending. They care for the cattle and keep the grounds in order. The class work and the outside work are correlated. The field work is related to class studies through nature study in the Primary and agriculture in the Middle, through composition, account keeping, etc. The knowledge gained through the carrying on of village trades is made use of in the making of and repairing of articles for the school or the farm, in preparing drawings of implements, etc., and in the study of village social problems.

The students themselves take a large degree of responsibility for the general management of the school. The Panchayat is the governing committee of the student body. They are elected annually by the boys from among themselves. The Panchayat handles many cases of discipline and arranges other affairs related to school life. The boys also elect a Food Committee who purchase the food, keep account and assign to the different boys the daily duties of cooking. Each boy gives about one day out of 20 for cooking. There is also a Committee for Caring for the Sick, a Committee on Sanitation and Hygiene, a Committee on Lighting. The elections are democratically conducted and the boys make very wise choices. The election is preceded by discussion in the classes, on the qualities requisite for leadership.

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The work of the farm is almost entirely done by the boys. The gardens are worked on a project basis, and the boys receive the profits of their labour in cash.*

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* A pamphlet on Self-Help at Moga describes the plan.

Boys are given definite agricultural instruction and are taught to use both the agricultural implements ordinarily in use in the villages and improved implements suitable to the country. They are also taught the care of cattle and the securing and storing of fertilising products.

Every boy is expected to accept the idea that no work which may be necessary for the maintenance of the life of the school is a disgrace. Each one must be ready to do any work on the farm or in the school. The dignity of labour is constantly taught. The staff set an example to the pupils by keeping gardens themselves and being willing to help also in any work that may be necessary. The graduates who return to the school point with pride to buildings they have helped to erect, trees they have planted and developments of the school in which they have shared.

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The culmination of the training is found in the Normal course. The course covers one year, but is very thorough. The following is the syllabus: Observation and Practice of Teaching; Principles of Teaching; Child Psychology; Methods of Teaching Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Hygiene, Geography, etc.; Rural Social Problems; Religious Education; Agriculture; Village Home Industries; Village School Management. This scheme, though departing considerably from the Government curriculum, has been approved by the Department of Education.

All the courses studied by the Normal Class are based upon simplified but through study of the application of psychology to teaching method. Students are trained in the observation and study of children and are helped to determine the general principles of teaching from their own observation and practice. The practice of teaching is stressed throughout the year. The students do a large amount of independent reading, and learn to think and plan, rather than slavishly follow a mechanical routine.

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The education given at Moga is definitely religious. In his recent careful study of "The Education of India", Mr. Mayhew states his conviction that Indian personality and life as a whole will not intimately be affected by an education which is not animated by religion. In so far as Moga is succeeding in its ideals, it is producing results in Christian character and personality.

APPENDIX D.

The School of Rural Economy, Gurgaon.

The aim of the School of Rural Economy, Gurgaon, is to bring teaching in rural schools and rural uplift work into line with village life. The education of our schools should not only show the villager how to improve himself and his surroundings but give him the definite desire to do so. The first object of the School of Rural Economy, Gurgaon, is to teach the Dignity of Labour as until the villager will put his own hand to all kinds of daily jobs, he will never improve his village. The second object is to instil the ideal of service and the desire to help oneself and other people on co-operative lines. The third object is to convince the villager by the actual instruction given, that there is a complete remedy for all the ills of village life.

The school was opened in October, 1925. The current course started on June 1st, 1927, with a normal Junior Vernacular class of eighty students from Gurgaon District and forty from the rest of the Ambala Division, and a village guides class of sixty students. These latter are posted on passing out to groups of villages where they work as uplift missionaries from village to village. Not having schools to teach they can devote their whole time to the task and are able to get down to the actual business, and by working with the villagers can show them exactly how to improve their conditions of life, by practice as well as by precept, avoid disease, epidemics, famine and all the evils that afflict our villages.

Adult education, Scouting and Co-operation are the three basic subjects taught in the school. From this it is hoped to instil into the student the spirit of self-help, co-operation and social service. The adult education course consists of training the students in running adult schools, village libraries, adult games, school games, play-for-all, refreshment-for-all, music-for-all, introduction of compulsory primary education in villages, co-education of boys and girls in elementary schools and medical inspection of school children. In the Scouting course special efforts are made to teach what village scouts can do in the villages, *i.e.*, cleaning villages with their own hands, digging manure pits, cleaning and disinfecting wells, distributing quinine among the sick, nursing the sick at their homes and bringing them to the hospital, rendering First-aid to men and animals, etc. The course in Co-operation is conducted by the officers of the Co-operative Department in the district. The finishing touch to the subject is given by the Educational Inspector of Co-operative Societies and his Assistants, who conduct a full Sub-Inspector's training course for more than a month. The school has its own staff to teach agriculture. The ideal is not to teach various theories about agriculture but to impress vividly what special kind of seed, what special plough and other implements are suited to Gurgaon needs. There are twelve bullocks of the best Hissar breed and almost all the improved implements necessary for an average cultivator. The farm covers fifty-one acres. The students do all the farm work with their own hands, they chop fodder and feed the bullocks, cut their firewood, work the Persian wheel, do ploughing, hoeing, harrowing, weeding, thrashing, manuring, carting, etc. Apart from this they are trained in killing field pests and in flower gardening.

Lectures in First Aid are delivered by the local Assistant Surgeon and practice in practical work is given by the Superintendent and the Scout Master. When the students have picked up some knowledge they are sent to the local hospital to attend cases. Students are taught all the practical measures to be adopted in times of epidemics, how to prepare villagers for inoculation, vaccination, digging manure pits, cleaning villages and using pit-latrines.

The Veterinary Inspector and the Veterinary Assistant train the students to detect the various epidemics in cattle, to combat their attacks, and to render first-aid to them. They also lecture on stock breeding. The Tahsildar and the Naib Tahsildar teach them how to approach revenue problems in villages. Afforestation work is dealt with by the Forest Ranger who impresses the value of forests in the dry and rainless district of Gurgaon and gives the students practice in the planting and care of trees.

A musician coaches the students at night in music, singing motherland songs and rural uplift songs modelled on indigenous tunes (chaupais). The dramatic club of the school staged rural uplift shows on some twelve occasions for District Board members, Gurgaon Territorial Force Battalion and the Palwal Show. One special show was given at Palwal for village women.

The district authorities and members of the District Board co-operate in lecturing in order to keep the students in the closest touch with the work going on in the district and prevent the school becoming 'academic' rather than practical. The students are taken to villages also and shown the evils and the remedies for them. Every student is trained to work the Magic lantern and deliver instructive talks to villagers on the special slides prepared for the uplift of the district. Efforts are made to train the students in social service and rural uplift work both by precept and practice and to imbue them with the missionary spirit without which all they learn and teach will be dry bones.

APPENDIX E.

Cambridgeshire Education Committee.

Model Syllabuses for Evening Classes.

Household Arithmetic.

This course of Arithmetic should deal in a concrete way with the various household transactions; examples and problems should be taken from the expenditure of daily life and the lessons made as practical as possible. Contrast two alternative ways of spending. Exercises in mental arithmetic should be included in every lesson. The harder calculations may be postponed to revision lessons. The teacher should not depend upon text-books for examples, which should be selected to suit the class and the occasion, frequent use being made of price lists.

1. *Taking a house.*—(Main ideas to be treated very simply). The agreement between landlord and tenant, payment of rent—weekly, quarterly, inclusive and exclusive of rates. Problems dealing with calculations of rents of houses, types of houses, streets, etc. Cost of travelling to work. Simple fractions to be used as wanted.

2. *Re-decorating the home.*—Problems dealing with calculation of time and cost involved in stripping walls, removing paint from surfaces, in conveying workmen certain distances, etc.

3. *Areas and perimeters.*—Problems dealing with calculations of amount of material and cost involved in whitewashing and papering ceilings, distempering and papering walls, inclusive of dadoes and friezes, plain and patterned paper, etc., painting baths, woodwork, etc. Consider the practical problems dealing with the quantity and cost of covering (*a*) floors (*b*) stairs, with carpet, linoleum, tiles, stain, etc. How much material is left over.

4. *Furnishing the home.*—Studying price lists. Payment of goods by cash, credit and instalment systems. Invoices and bills. Checking goods on delivery. Receipted bills. Problems dealing with calculation of cost of furnishing the home.

5. *Management of income.*—Apportioning money. True and false economy. Problems dealing with household expenditure. Daily, weekly, quarterly and annual budgets to be prepared by student. Mr. Micawber's advice.

6. *Household accounts.*—Simple methods of keeping and balancing household accounts. Checking tradesmen's accounts. Problems dealing with current household expenses.

7. *Profit and loss.*—Simple business methods suitable for home industries, garden, poultry and bee-keeping. Simple averages.

8. *Taking a house for both home and business premises.*—Purchase through loan from a Bank or Building Society. Introduce the ideas of interest and sinking fund and work simple cases.

9. *Graphs.*—Reckoning by graphs to find (1) wages and cost of living; (2) quantity and cost of household commodities. This will involve simple proportion applied to household purposes. Problems dealing with relationship of two quantities of the same kind.

10. *The metric system.*—Measurements of length, weight and capacity. Coinage of France and America. Problems dealing with shopping in France and America. Use of graphical methods of conversion from foreign to English and *vice versâ*.

11. *Savings.*—Investments, Post Office Savings, War Certificates, Government Stock, annuities, insurance, Old Age Pension, simple and compound interest, discount, banking.

12. *Examination of Local Rates.*—Expenditure to be analysed. How the money is collected. General and special rates.

Reference Books recommended.

Title.	Author.	Publisher.
Housecraft Arithmetic.	Theodora Mallon, M.A., and Hilda Pearsons, B. Sc.	Longmans.
A practical Domestic and Household Arithmetic.	F. Sayers and B. A. Tomes	Blackie.
Household Accounts.	R. Deakin and P. J. Humphreys.	Mills and Boon.
Domestic Arithmetic.	.. ...	Collins.

Arithmetic and Mensuration.

Suggestions.

For the success of this course, it is necessary to combine the calculations essential to rural occupations and practical work with purely arithmetical problems.

A strong feature should be made of mental work. The power to get approximate answers, mentally, by a process of simplification, to any problem, is of the greatest utility. Unwieldy numbers should be avoided; material for original problems should be found in local weights and measures, sales and market reports, wages, cost of building materials, planting, sowing, harvesting, etc.

Practical work gives the necessary *relief* in these lessons. The use of rules, graduated in tenths, introduces decimals in the determination of the area of simple geometrical figures, or of local fields, traced from the ordnance map.

With the simpler volumes, the volumenometer serves to check the results derived from measurement and calculation. The use of the chain, and plotting to scale from field-book records, constitute the practical work of the second year.

"Agricultural Arithmetic", by J. C. Newman and T. V. Philpott (Crossby Lockwood and Co.) price 5*s.*; "Rural and Agricultural Arithmetic", by R. R. Blewett (Pitman and Sons), price 1*s.* 2*d.*; and "Notes on the Construction and Use of Simple Surveying Instruments for School purposes", by H. Wigley (Clark and Co., Gravesend) price 1*s.*, give useful details on all necessary points. The last-named deals with home-made apparatus required for the course.

First Year.

Sylabus.—Decimals. Contracted Methods. Percentages. Interest. Areas of rectilineal figures and circles. Volumes of cube, prism, cylinder and cone. Use of volumenometer. Calculation with clamps, casks, ricks, dungheaps, timber, etc. Use of Specific Gravity in calculating weights and volumes.

Second Year.

Syllabus.—Farm accounts. Farm and household book-keeping. Checking accounts and goods delivered. Revision of decimals and areas of rectilineal figures. Chaining. Field-Books. Plotting to Scale. Calculation of content.

Land problems.—Drainage. Excavation Costs. Manures. Seeding. Weight of Produce. Labour. Buildings. Insurance.

Use of simple Level in the field. Records. Plotting to Scale. Calculations.

APPENDIX F.

The geography and science syllabuses of a rural secondary school, with the headmaster's notes thereon.

Geography Syllabus.

Throughout the school but especially with the Senior Forms emphasis is given to the fact that the world is one and that only by recognising this and accepting it as the basis of human relations can the peoples of the Earth hope to reach their highest development.

To this end, while care is taken to give a knowledge of the fundamental physical facts, etc.—these facts are regarded (so far as the teaching of geography is concerned) merely as the framework of the subject, or as the setting which displays man in his relation to his fellows.

Atlas.

The Atlas used throughout the school is Meiklejohn's Comparative Atlas.

The Ordnance Survey Maps are constantly used and referred to in all Forms.

Philips' Wall Atlas and Unstead and Taylor are also used.

Practical Geography.

Exercises in practical Geography are given almost weekly at all stages of the work.

A special feature is made of "Research" work.

In a "Research" study the children are given special areas or subjects and are required to spend three or four weeks in consulting reference books and text-books in order to select the information necessary for their "Thesis". This method of attack is proving of great value in many ways. It lends "point" to the practical exercises and some exceptionally interesting "Research Studies", often well illustrated by original line and colour sketches, have been produced on such subjects as:—"The Cocoa Industry", "Japan", "Modes of Transport throughout the World", "The Dwelling-houses of the World", "Fishing", "The Animals of Africa", etc.

Form II.

1. *Land Forms, Map Making and Map Reading.*—Making simple models in sand, clay, plasticine, etc., to illustrate hills, valleys, etc. Contouring and Sectioning from the models, Study of relative heights in the district and attempt to make a simple map of same.

2. *World Geography.*—Stories of great Explorers following their voyages on a map of the World and leading to a simple study of the chief land and water areas of the world and to the Planetary wind system.

3. *Human Geography.*—Broad outlines of human life and activities in the chief natural regions of the world:—

(*a*) The Equatorial and Monsoon are capital regions.

(*b*) The Great Grasslands—Savannas, Prairies, Steppes.

(*c*) The Temperate Belt.

4. *Movements of the Earth.*—Simple determinations of seasonal and daily changes in the height of the sun, duration of day and night, to be made.

Simple consideration of the effects of these changes on temperature.

5. Simple study of relief, rainfall, temperature, and prevailing winds of district leading to elementary ideas concerning climate and climatic control of vegetation.

Text Book.—Fairgrieve and Young's "Human Geography of the World".

Form IIIb.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, as for Forms I and II but in greater detail.

6. The British Isles treated regionally and without too great detail.

Text Book.—As for Form II and in addition Fairgrieve and Young's "The British Isles" Primary Series.

Form IIIa.

1. *Land Forms, Map Making and Map Reading.*—The work of ice, water, and other agents in shaping the Earth's surface. A further study of contouring, etc.

2. *Movements of the Earth.*—Latitude and Longitude, Day and Night, the Seasons.

3. *World Geography.*—Simple study of the main regions of the World which are commercially developed—their climate, productions and trade.

4. *The British Isles* treated regionally and in some detail and giving special attention to International relations and trade.

Text Book.—Fairgrieve and Young's "The British Isles" (Secondary series).

Form IV.

1. *Land Forms, Map Making and Map Reading.*—Earth movement—blocks, folds, drowned valleys, etc. River action—cataracts, waterfalls, flood, plain, delta. The Ordnance Survey map. Simple surveying.

2. *World Geography.*—Wind systems and rain belts—excluding Monsoons—seasonal changes and their effect on climate. Ocean currents—causes. Effect on climate. Climate and vegetation and their bearing on human activities.

3. *Special Region.*—The Atlantic shorelands. Europe surveyed but briefly. Africa and the Americas in some detail. Emphasis to be laid on the ocean as a highway and as an International band. The land areas to be treated under the following headings:—

Surface features.
Climatic conditions and regional characteristics.
Resources and industries.
Centres of population.
Trade.

Text Book.—Fairgrieve and Young's "The Atlantic Hemisphere".

Form Vc.

1. *Land Forms, Map Making and Map Reading.*—Revision of work of Lower forms and in addition, Rift valleys, Fiords, Rias, Glacial action, Volcanos, Coral. More advanced making and map reading.

2. *World Geography.*—Distribution of Temperature and Pressure in greater detail. Monsoons and other seasonal winds. Systematic discussion of climatic factors leading to a classification of climates and a study of their typical vegetations and products. Human life and activities of various regions contrasted and compared.

3. *Special Region.*—Europe, Asia and Australia to be studied under the same headings as for Form IV Special Region. Special attention to questions of International relations in the Pacific.

Text Books.—Fairgrieve and Young's "Euro-Asia". Unstead and Taylor "Essentials of Geography".

Forms Vb and Va.

1. *Land Forms, Map Making and Map Reading.*—Revision and extension of work of previous Forms. Special attention to the interpretation of the Ordnance Survey Maps.

2. *World Geography.*—Revision and extension of work of previous Forms. Special attention to World distribution of Temperature. Pressure, rainfall, climate and vegetation. The distribution of animals. The mineral resources of the world. The peoples of the world and their inter-relations. The Great

Ocean Highways, Land routes, and air routes in their relation to the development of the world's resources.

3. *Special Regions.*—General revision of the six continents treated comparatively and regionally. The British Isles in detail.

Text Book.—Unstead and Taylor's "General and Regional Geography".

Science Syllabus 1926-27.

Form II.—Boys and Girls.

A.—*Nature Study.*

Birds.—Migration. Forms of Bills—Feeding. Nesting Boxes—Winter Feeding. Colouring protective—Harmful or useful birds.

Fish.—Life Histories of salmon, trout, eels, some aquatic insects.

Animal life.—Rabbit, hare, fox, rat, otter, mole, snail, hedgehog, bat, frog.

Plant life.—Distribution of seeds.

Wild Flowers and Weeds.—Root forms. Leaves. Flowers. Fruits.

Form II.—Boys Only.

Gardening (working in pairs on plots 100 sq. ft.)

Hours per week, 1½.

Rotation: (*a*) potatoes; (*b*) beet and carrot; (*c*) cabbage, garden swede; (*d*) green manure.

Use and care of tools—digging, trenching, etc.—manuring—preparation of seed beds—sowing, thinning, etc.—lifting and storing of various crops. Preparation of seed order—planning of plots—weighing and costing produce.

Pests and diseases—life histories of some of them.

Preparation of labels for plots.

(Board of Agriculture Leaflets for work indoors in bad weather).

Form IIIb.

Introduction to study of plants.—Plant as a whole. Common flowers. Twigs from trees in garden. Seeds—germination, etc.

Study of animals.—Common animals. External form: Habits, etc.

Boys only. Hours per week, 1½—

Gardening—as for Form II, but with greater variety of crops.

(*N.B.*—New pupils starting in this Form with no knowledge of gardening are usually placed with more experienced pupils).

Modified Science Syllabus.

Form IIIa.

Physics.—Course of experiments dealing with:—Measurement: length, area, volume, temperature, etc. Balance: weighing. Density: Relative density. Archimedes Law. Floating bodies, fluid pressure. Atmospheric pressure, barometer.

*Study of plants continued from III*b.—Various parts, uses, modifications, development, etc.

*Study of animals continued from III*b.—Insects, etc.—applied work in garden.

Gardening. Boys only.—The boys work a "common plot" with the following rotation:—(1) Potatoes. (2) Beet and Carrots. (3) Onions. (4) Cabbage Family.

Experimental work on common plot: (*a*) variety trials; (*b*) seed saving—selection of types; (*c*) control of pests and diseases—spraying; (*d*) raising of seed potatoes—rogueing; (*e*) influence of spacing of crops; (*f*) simple manurial experiments.

In addition each boy prunes, feeds, and generally manages (1) an apple tree, (2) a soft fruit bush—gooseberry or red currant.

C. *Other activities.*—(1) The class records observations made of air temperature and soil temperature.

Form IV.

Chemistry.—Sequence of experiments dealing with:—Oxygen, oxides, acids, bases, salts. Hydrogen: water. Atmosphere: nitrogen: ammonia. Common calcium compounds.

Simple treatment of organic compounds, using common foods, etc. Proteins, fats, carbohydrates.

Germination of seeds experimentally treated Cotyledons, endosperm.

Internal structure of plant.—Cell: tissues: growth.

Unicellular plants and animals.—Moulds, bacteria, amoeba, hydra, etc.

Weeds and grasses, etc., of farm. Gardening. Boys only.—(a) Potato experiments—(eight plot test—law of diminishing returns—observation of same only—results considered in Vc); (b) raising plants from seed, etc.; (c) management of border; (d) experiments arising from the indoor course.

Form Vc.

Energy.—Forms: characteristics: detection: measurement. Transformations. Radiant energy.

Soil.—Origin: constituents: analysis. Pore space: air space. Water content: organic content. Movement of water in soil: control by cultured operations. Soil temperature. Elements present in soil (plant ash): Retention of elements, etc., by soil. Chemical changes taking place in soil—micro-organisms—various cycles.

Plants and animals in relation to energy, etc.—Nutrition: plant ash. Water cultures: sand cultures. Effects of various fertilisers: garden experiments. Digestion in animals: germinating seeds, enzymes, etc. Respiration in plants and animals. Photosynthesis. Experimental results—consideration of numerical results from various experiments (chiefly dealing with potatoes). Greenhouse and frames in relation to radiation, convection, sunshine, humidity of atmosphere, etc.

Form Va and Vb.

Revision with extensions of previous work, e.g.—Vernier. Boyle's Law, etc.

Heat more fully treated. Chemistry.—Mineral acids, chlorine, nitric oxide, sulphur, phosphorus, iron, magnesium, fertilisers in greater detail.

The examination in science taken by all School Certificate candidates (Forms V*a* and V*b*) is chemistry with physics for rural districts as set out on pages 18 and 19 of the Durham School Certificate Regulations. This syllabus was granted by the University in 1917 in response to repeated protests on my part. It is, in my opinion, a first rate Syllabus for a rural school in that it affords a sound training for intending farmers in the elements of the sciences underlying good farming practice and yet does not penalise those pupils who, after School Certificate stage, wish to read for Higher Certificate and University Scholarships. Of course our work even up to V*a* extends considerably beyond the bounds of the examination syllabus. That is as it should be. Pupils take the examination "in their stride". The examination is not allowed to limit the intellectual outlook. I may say also that Durham Northern Universities, and Bristol recognise a pass in this "chemistry with physics for rural schools" as a matriculation subject.

There are one or two further points to which I think I should refer.

(1) It is sometimes argued by the pure chemists and physicists that biological studies do not afford the training in weighing, measuring, etc., that is given by chemistry and physics. That, of course, depends on the content of the syllabus. There are plenty of opportunities for the use of the balance in making up culture media for bacteria, solutions for sand cultures, etc., and in studying the growth of seeds and plants, etc. The skilled teacher is never at a loss to devise the right type of practical work.

(2) Biological studies, in my opinion, afford a better training in "scientific attitude" (I use the term for want of a better) than do chemistry and physics. In the latter subjects it is seldom that any experiment is undertaken which requires more than 1½ hours for completion. Children come into the laboratory, set up the apparatus, perform the experiment, and then pack the apparatus into a cupboard again all in the space of a double period. There is little in this sort of thing that trains a child "to think over a long process or period".

But in biology when living plants and animals are being studied experiments the study may take three or more months for completion. Surely this is the essence of training in research method.

(3) Owing to the difficulty of dealing with certain aspects of the subject in mixed classes we have not treated in our syllabus the zoological side as fully as the botanical side of biology.

This is, in a sense, unfortunate but I see no way out of the difficulty in the present state of public opinion on the matter of teaching sex in mixed schools.

The syllabus in geography must also be regarded as a minimum, since this school lies 250 feet above sea-level at the Western entrance to the Tyne Gap, with the land rising more or less rapidly on the South-East and North and North-East to a height of 2,000 ft. or more it is easy to trace the relations of altitude, soils, climate, crops, and systems of farming. Sheep raising, cattle rearing and dairy farming are the chief industries of the neighbourhood and a consideration of local climatic data, soils and altitude in comparison with those of the grain and fruit areas of Britain paves the way for the study of world production of food stuffs in relation to climate, etc. The absence of really big industrial areas in the near neighbourhood and the fact, well known to every child in the school that sheep, cattle, milk, butter, eggs, poultry, etc., are sent daily and weekly (from the local "market") to distant industrial towns on the North-East coast, in Yorkshire, Lancashire, etc., serve as starting points in the study of the interdependence of agriculture and industry. This in turn leads to the consideration of national and international trade and methods of transport. Since in the district there is much sandy soil that burns out quickly during early summer droughts, while harvests are often prolonged owing to the rains of August one naturally has a first-rate opportunity of teaching the relation between weather and prices. In this connection it is valuable to show how the weather of Canada, United States of America, etc., by controlling the yield of grain crops may affect the pockets of the local farmer.

In Upper Forms especially pupils are trained to consult newspapers and standard works of reference such as Whitakers' Almanac, the Statesman's Year Book, Ministry of Agriculture Statistical Publications, The Farmers' Year Book, etc. Comparative tables and diagrams showing the acreage under various crops, yield per acre, variations in prices, etc., in comparison with local statistics are a regular feature of the work.

One method of approach which yields most valuable educational results is to require pupils to devote the whole of geography periods—School and homework—for one month during the Summer Term in writing a thesis on subjects such as "The World's Wheat Crops", "Wool Production", "The Sugar Beet Industry". Undoubtedly work of this type, for many years a regular feature of the work at this school, encourages the future farmer to take a broader view of things generally than is traditional among farmers.

Most interesting discussions also arise from a comparison between the co-operative farming as practised in Denmark and the individualistic methods of the British farmer. Such topics, of course require very careful handling on the part of the teacher as it is all too easy in these days, to upset parents of violent political and social prejudices.

APPENDIX G.

Report by Mr. H. R. Stewart, I.A.S., Professor of Agriculture, Punjab Agricultural College, Lyallpur, on his visit to certain places in Great Britain during his deputation out of India, in 1925.

Rural Science Teaching in Primary Schools in Ireland.

Probably in no part of Great Britain has the teaching of Rural Science or Nature Study in schools been a part of the elementary training of the school boy longer than in Ireland where a beginning in this direction was made upwards of twenty years ago. During my leave I had an opportunity of going into this subject and of comparing it with the Punjab scheme of teaching agriculture and rural science in Middle Vernacular Schools. I give below the main points in the scheme which has been working in Ireland during recent years and a copy of the syllabus in connection with it.

For the entrance examination to the Training College for ordinary Elementary School teachers Rural Science is a subject and embraces matter, air, water, soil, plant life, insect and bird life and hygiene. Details of the knowledge required for this examination are given in syllabus A attached to this note.

The Rural Science course which follows during the two years spent in the training College is detailed in Syllabus B attached. It embraces a fair amount of elementary science which is followed up by a good course on plant and vegetable life, soils, etc. The course in Science given to women at the Training College is somewhat different, has less applied science and has a tendency to domestic science as will be seen in Syllabus C.

A proposal has recently been made to introduce Rural Science into Secondary Schools in Ireland, and to give effect to this a special course of three months' duration was given at the Training College during last summer. Syllabus D attached shows the scope of the course of instruction given. The course follows closely that given to primary teachers in the early days of the scheme in summer courses at the Royal College of Science, these courses having given place subsequently to Rural Science as a compulsory subject in Training Colleges.

The syllabus for the course in Rural Science given to boys in the Primary Schools was in process of revision at the time I was at home. The old programme of primary instruction given in schools consisted in (1) a course of Nature Study taught to boys in the 3rd, 4th, 5th and higher standards, (2) a course in elementary science for boys from the 4th standard upwards and (3) a course of Rural Science and School Gardening taken during the boys' last three years at school, *i.e.*, in the 5th, 6th and 7th standards. The scope of these courses is shown in Syllabuses E, F and G attached. The school Gardening Course with which the boy finishes his primary school studies is largely agricultural and useful to him in after life whether or not he takes up an agricultural vocation.

In order to save the teacher's time as much as possible from a multiplication of classes a proposal was made last summer to amalgamate all the three syllabuses just referred to into one syllabus under the heading of Rural Science and to divide this course into two equal parts extending over a period of two years only. Under the system existing hitherto it extended over five years, *viz.*, from the 3rd standard onwards. The new proposals restrict it only to the two last years of the boys' primary school education, *viz.*, to the 6th and 7th standards. I have not yet heard whether this proposal has been accepted but if so the new course will henceforth be that given in Syllabus H attached.

A review of the various syllabuses above referred to will serve to show that the courses given in the Punjab both to the teachers who come for special training in agricultural and Rural Science, and subsequently to the boys in the Middle Vernacular Schools throughout the province are very little, if any, behind those being given in Ireland. In the school gardens which I visited there the permanent fruit and shrub plots are a feature which has not been introduced here so far. The other main difference lies in the method of training the teachers. Whereas in the early days a special class of three months was held at the Royal College of Science, Dublin, extending over one

or two summers, Rural Science now has become a compulsory subject for the entrance examination to the ordinary Training College, whilst it is further studied during the students' two years course at that College.

SYLLABUS A.—FOR THE EXAMINATION FOR ENTRANCE TO TRAINING COLLEGE.

Rural Science.

Matter.—Solid, liquid and gas. Effect of heat on the physical condition of solids, liquids and gases. Weight and density.

Air.—Its reality. The atmosphere; its principal gases and their chief properties. Air and burning. Effect of heat on air. Movement of air. Rusting of iron. Physical and chemical change. Density of air and water vapour. The barometer. Distinction between temperature and quantity of heat; transference of heat. The thermometer.

Water.—The chief uses of water in plant and animal life. Solution, evaporation, condensation, boiling. Purification of water, filtration. Rain, mist, vapour, dew, frost, ice, snow hail, clouds. Expansion of water, climate and weather.

Soils.—Origin and formation of soil, vegetable and mineral matter in the soil. Air, water and soluble matter in the soil. Living organism in the soil. The soil in relation to plant life.

Plant Life.—General study of the structure and principle functions of an ordinary plant. The chief parts of a plant:—roots, stem, leaves, buds, flowers, fruit. The more common modifications of plant organs. Fruit and seed dispersal. Structure of some common seeds. Germination and after development. Conditions necessary for germination. Vegetative reproduction of plants. Life cycle of annual, biennial and perennial plants. Recognition of common plants. Plants and their environment.

Life history of the common butterfly or other typical insect habits and migration of birds.

Hygiene.—General structure of the human body. The chief functions of the principal organs of the body. Respiration, ventilation. Body heat, perspiration.

SYLLABUS B.—TAUGHT IN THE TRAINING COLLEGE.

First Year.

(1) *Rural Science (Men).*

Note.—The matter of this course should be illustrated by demonstration as far as possible.

The earth and its relation to other heavenly bodies.

Mass gravitation and weight.

The spiral spring, lever and balance.

Matter.—Different states of matter. Gases, weight and pressure. The barometer. Boyle's Law.

Density of solids and liquids. Specific gravity. Principle of Archimedes. Expansion of solids, liquids and gases when heated.

Measurement of temperature. Thermometers.

Transference of heat.

Heat in relation to change of state of matter. Solution. Purification of liquids. Crystallisation.

Preparation of gas from marble and acid; compare the resulting gas with ordinary air.

Air and fire, flame. The principal gases of the air. Preparation of oxygen. Oxidation of some metals and non-metals in air and oxygen. Some properties of the oxides produced. Rusting of iron. Acids and alkalies. Synthesis and analysis of carbon dioxide.

Chemical and physical change; elements and compounds. Introduction to law of constant proportion.

Organic and inorganic matter.

Soils.—Physical analysis of two types of soils; porosity, air and water holding capacity, capillary power, organic and inorganic matter in different types of soil; soluble and insoluble matter in soil; effect of lime and other substances on soils; soil burning. Subsoil and underlying rock.

Plant Life.—Examination of a complete plant. Detailed study of root, stem, leaf and flower; structure and functions, and modifications of root, stem, leaf and flowers. Comparison and contrast of seeds and fruits. Structure and germination of seeds. Study of seedling; Fruit and seed dispersal. Experiment to show that plants derive by far the greater proportion of their substance from air and water. Experiments to ascertain the purity and germination of seeds. Comparative values of different samples.

Outdoor Work.

Soil.—Draining, trenching, digging, preparation of soil for different crops. Application of lime. Farm-yard manure and artificial manures. Making of compost heap from garden refuse and lime.

Vegetables.—Cultivation of potatoes, carrots, parsnips, beet, cabbage, cauliflower, broccoli, brussels sprouts, beans, peas, french and runner beans, spinach, radishes, lettuce, seed onions, tripoli onions, potato onions, shallots, leeks, rhubarb, celery, turnips, artichokes, vegetable marrow, garlic.

Fruits.—Planting and after treatment of apples, pears, plums, cherries, currants (different types), gooseberries, strawberries, loganberries, raspberries; tomatoes.

Flowers.—Care of a herbaceous border throughout the year. Care of a rockery throughout the year. Cultivation of as many annual and biennial flowers as possible in the garden.

Propagating Bed.—Propagation of apples, pears, plums and all bush fruits. Propagation of shrubs and perennial flowers. Propagation of forest trees.

Demonstrations.—Pruning, grafting, budding, spraying. Treatment of diseased parts.

Excursions.

Talks in school-garden, in Botanic gardens, study of flora of the country and identification of wild plants, and identification of the more common fungoid and insect pests.

The association of Rural Science teaching with local circumstances.

Final Year.

(1) *Rural Science* (*Men*).

Note.—The matter of this course should be illustrated by demonstration and experiment as far as possible.

Latent and specific heat. Saturated and unsaturated vapours. Vapour pressure. Boiling points. Melting points. Wet and dry bulb thermometers. Dew point.

Expansion and density of gases. Preparation of acids and alkalies.

Study of oxides leading up to law of Multiple proportion. Neutralisation—preparation of salts, titrations.

Equivalent weights.

Analysis and synthesis of water.

Study of chalk and lime.

Avogadro's hypotheses. Atomic Theory. Formula and equations. Hardness of water.

Origin of soils.—Formation and structure of limestone, sandstone, granite, shale, slate and marble. General distribution of these rocks in Ireland. Classification and examination of soils—clayey, sandy, loamy, peaty.

Soil Organisms.—Soil Organisms; prove the existence of bacteria in soils, and show by experiment some of their effects. Examine one or two types of bacteria with the microscope. Bacteria in milk and their action; how their activities may be checked. The earthworm.

Manures.—Natural and artificial.

Plants.—Recapitulation of first year's work. Culture solution experiment. Life history of fern. Life history of typical fungus. Examination of plants attacked by fungi.

Birds.—Habits, influences, and migration of birds.

Animals.—Structure and life history of two insects and their relation to plants. Life history of frog.

The animal body and its work.—Demonstration on a dissected rabbit to show the blood system and the principal digestive organs of the body. Function of these organs. Comparison with similar organs in the human body. Breathing and ventilation, perspiration. Digestion and assimilation of foods. Different types of food and their comparative values.

Alcohol as a food, as a drug and as a poison.

Weather Observations.—Barometer, thermometer, hygrometer. Weather maps, winds, rainfall.

Outdoor Work.

The second year students should take part in the outdoor work outlined for the first year's course, in addition to the following:—

Surveying.—Chain survey of an irregular field illustrating various practical difficulties; plotting and calculation of area of same from field book. Reading of ordnance maps.

General Plot.—Showing specimens of wheat, oats, barley, rye, flax, timothy, cocksfoot, meadow fescue, Italian rye grass, perennial rye grass, the oat grasses, the meadow grasses, tall fescue, maize, lucerne, crested dogstail, meadow foxtail, clovers, mangols, turnips, and cabbage for seed production; industrial varieties of sugar beet; experiments in extraction of sugar from beet. Hybridization and single plant selection.

Herbs.—Thyme, rosemary, mint, parsley, sage, asparagus. Identification of plants with the aid of a floral text.

Window and Indoor Plants.—Potting of plants, propagation and treatment. Rearing of seedlings in beds and garden frame.

NOTE.—It is most desirable that each student should have undivided responsibility throughout the year for the care and management of a separate plot. The manner in which such plots are cared for during the year will be taken into consideration in making awards at the annual examination.

Excursions.

Study of general flora and effect of environment.

Study of different types of rock.

Study of different types of soil and their relation to the underlying rock.

The association of Rural Science teaching with local circumstances.

SYLLABUS C.—TAUGHT IN THE TRAINING COLLEGE.

(1) *Rural Science (Women).*

NOTE.—The matter of this course should be illustrated by demonstration and experiment as far as possible.

The earth and its relation to other heavenly bodies, gravitation and weight. The spiral spring, lever and ordinary balance.

Matter.—Different states of matter. Gases—density, weight and pressure. The Barometer, Boyle's Law, Density of solids and liquids. Specific gravity. Principle of Archimedes.

Heat.—Expansion of solids, liquids and gases when heated.

Measurement of temperature. Transference of heat. Heat in relation to change of state of matter. Solution.

Water.—Sources, pollution and purification. Hardness of water, soap and other cleaning agents.

Purification of liquids, crystallisation. Vapour pressure. Boiling points, melting points, wet and dry bulb thermometer. Dew point.

Preparation of gas from marble and acid; comparison of the resulting gas with ordinary air.

Air and fire. Flame. The principal gases of the atmosphere. Preparation of oxygen. Rusting of iron.

Chemical and physical change. Elements and compounds. Acids, alkalies, salts.

Organic and inorganic matter.

Plants.—General structure and principal functions of the different organs of plants. Flowers—arrangement and use of each part. Fruits—fruit and seed dispersal. Structure and germination of seeds; condition necessary for germination. Recognition of common plants. Water in relation to plant life. Plants and their environment. Use of a floral text.

Reference to ferns, mosses, lichens and alga.

Food.—Different kinds of food. Digestion and assimilation of food, fermentation, yeast. Use of bread-soda. Moisture, organic matter and ash in foods and beverages.

Fungi and bacteria general structure, method of feeding and reproducing of one type of each. Distribution and activities, method of checking the activities of bacteria. Preservation of food, sterilisation, antiseptics and disinfectants.

The human body. Respiration, perspiration, body temperature, circulation of blood, ventilation.

Life history of the common butterfly.

Habits, influences and migration of birds.

The association of Rural Science teaching with local circumstances.

SYLLABUS D.—OF SUMMER COURSE IN AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE, 1925.

For Teachers in Secondary Schools.

Description of a Flowering Plant.

Morphology and Anatomy of Dicotyledon (herbaceous and arborious), and monocotyledon.

Various types of stem, root, and leaf and modification for special purposes.

The mature and the Embryonic vegetative cell.

Movement of protoplasm. Karyokinesis and growth.

Storage cells. Food reserves; carbohydrates, fats and proteins.

Absorption, Transpiration, Photosynthesis, Respiration, Kerophytes, Special modes of nutrition, Parasites and Saphrophytes.

Carnivorous plants. Symbiotic combinations, Leguminous plants, Lichens.

Composition of plant; water cultures.

Transport of food matter. Enzymes.

Principles of classification. Use of a "Flora".

Reproduction; Pollen, Ovule. Pollination. Fertilization "Sports".

The seeds and the fruit. Germination. Seed Testing.

Examination and identification of the following seeds: Perennial Rye grass, Italian Rye grass, Meadow Fescue, Sheep's Fescue, Cocks foot, Timothy, Foxtail, Crested Dogstail, Sweet vernal, Turnip, Flax, Clover (Red, White and Alcylie).

General study of Fern, Equisetum, Moss, Liverwort, Algae and Fungi with particular reference to parasitic Fungi Bacteria.

Aphis, Leather Jacket, Wireworm and other insects of economic importance.

Study of the common rocks of the Earth's crust. Weathering and products of the decay of rocks. Transported soil. River action. Glacial deposits. Bedding, Folding. Conformable and unconformable series.

Earth movement. Elevation and subsidence with special reference to Ireland.

Elements entering into composition of plants. Carbohydrates, fats, proteins and minerals. Plant food with special reference to the elements supplied in manures.

Soils; their origin. Constituents, inorganic and organic. Function and importance of organic matter. Simple mechanical analysis. Water movements in soil and its bearing on common tillage operations. Specific and Latent heats in relation to soil temperature. Simple chemical examination of soil and its value. Carbonates and nitrates. Classification of soils. Field observations.

Experiments showing the chief properties of limestone, lime, potashes, sulphate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, bone compounds, natural phosphate, basic slag, superphosphate, kainit, muriate and sulphate of potash. Incompatible mixtures of these. Retention of manures by soil.

Composition and examination of milk for fat, sugar, protein and minerals. Use of Lactometer. Acidity and decomposition. Other examples of acidity in natural products.

Climate and weather conditions, use of barometer, maximum and minimum thermometers, hygrometers, rain gauge. Principles of forecasting. Cyclones and anti-cyclones, construction of weather maps.

SYLLABUS E.—FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

NATURE STUDY.

Third Standard.

Seasonal object lessons from nature so selected that a specimen can be provided for each pupil.

The subjects should include the observation and study of Winter twig, opening bud, simple leaves and flowers with the object of recognising wild flowers and trees, wild fruits and garden weeds.

Simple lessons on phenomena within the pupils' common experience.

To make a Nature Calendar with special reference to weather and observations of natural objects and the farmer's work.

Fourth Standard.

Sources of water supply in neighbourhood of school. Study of a small stream; the work of a river.

Uses of water drinking, cooking, cleaning.

Purification of water by boiling and filtering.

Necessity of water for plant growth.

Rain, ice and snow.

Dissolving and melting.

Weather observations. Points of compass; daily path of sun; position at mid-day determined by length and direction of the shadow of a stick. Time of sunrise, of sunset; direction of wind and kind of day.

Use of domestic thermometer.

Changes in moon, moonrise and moonset.

Study of germinating seeds, leafless twig and opening buds. The modes of food storage in early flowering plants—bulbs, corms, swollen stems or roots; sprouting of potato tuber.

Condition of soil in winter; winter weeds in garden.

Study of trees—recognition by general shape, twigs, bark and leaves.

Recognition of 20 to 30 wild flowers.

The forms and duties of flowers, fruits, stems, roots and leaves.

The scattering of fruits and seeds.

Insect visits to flowers. Study of butterfly, caterpillar and chrysalis; the earthworm.

Nature Calendar as in Standard III.

Fifth and Higher Standards.

Revision of lessons on structure of flowers and their use.

Formation and kinds of fruit, scattering of fruit and seeds, study of twigs and buds.

Germination of seeds and growth of seedlings.

Forms and uses of roots, stems and branches, structure of young and old stems. Leaves and their work, effect of light upon leaves.

Vegetative methods of reproduction:—runners, underground stems, tubers, bulbs and corms.

Life history of annuals, biennials and perennials. Leaf fall and decay.

Study of weather—nature of dew, clouds, rain; systematic observations of weather.

Study of the life history of the earthworm, snail, cabbage butterfly, and other garden insects.

NOTE.—It is most important that a detailed scheme of lessons in this subject should be drawn up for each standard at the beginning of the school year.

SYLLABUS F.—FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE.

Fourth Standard.

1. Easy practical exercises on length, area, volume, weight. Instruments for measuring volume and weight.

2. Water. Changes on heating and cooling, steam, ice, frost, snow, water vapour in air. Clouds and mist.

3. Expansion of water and air on heating. Thermometers.

4. Air: Pressure of air. Air necessary for burning. Behaviour of burning candle.

5. Solubility. Filtering.

Fifth Standard.

1. Density of water, hot and cold. Density of other liquids and solids. Barometer and weather. Use of thermometers. Hard and soft water. Milk.

2. Air has weight. Water supply in towns. Evaporation: moisture in foods. Nature of burning.

Sixth Standard.

1. Nature of air. Human breath. Ventilation, clothing. Rusting of iron. Combustion of food in body Levers. Flotation. Principle of Archimedes. Inclined Plane.

Seventh Standard.

Diets and foodstuffs. Study of wheat and flour. Sugar, starch, yeast, alcohol. Acids, chalk, lime. Digestion, disease. Soap and contaminated water. "Fur" on kettle. Elementary mechanical and physical principles and their application.

SYLLABUS G.—FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

RURAL SCIENCE AND SCHOOL GARDENING.

First Year's Course.

Section A1.

Plant Life: Seeds; Roots and Shoots; Leaves; Flowers; Plant types; Manures; The principles of Manuring.

Section A2.

1. Use, care, and storage of the various garden implements.
2. Preparation of the soil for cultivation.
3. Autumn cultivation, and manuring.
4. Preliminary study of the physical character of the soil.
5. Origin and nature of garden soil.
6. Plan of garden and of pupils' plots (to scale).
7. Cropping a vegetable garden.
8. Simple experiments with sand, clay, and humus, to illustrate their main functions.
9. Improvement of soils. Drainage, trenching, digging, hoeing.
10. Crop rotation: its object and effects.
11. Exercises in vegetable propagation.
12. Exercises in planting fruit and forest trees.
13. Potting and re-potting.
14. The principles illustrated in watering pot plants.

Second Year's Course.

Section B1.

Fungi, etc. Life in the soil; Vegetation of the district; Origin of soils; Animals of the garden; Effect of cultivation of gardens on the social life of the community; More detailed study of the structure and functions of roots; stems and leaves; Treatment of unhealthy plants and of crops suffering from insect and fungus attacks in garden.

Section B2.

1. Use of frame and hotbed.
2. Raising and planting of forest trees for school and home use.
3. The management of the school garden.
4. Schemes of cropping.
5. Management of fruit trees. Training, manuring, root pruning, etc.
6. Exercises in plant propagation, cuttings, graftings, budding, layering,
7. Modified leaves, stems, roots.
8. Practice in cultivation of the less common vegetables.
9. Practice in the use and preparation of spraying mixtures.

Third Year's Course.

Section C1.

The school in relation to its surroundings; Atmosphere and weather observations; Thermometer; The hill slopes; Action of frost and rain; Local river system; The Sea-shore (for schools situated near); Rocks (how made).

Section C2.

The work of this section should be of a higher quality than that expected in first or second year. It may include a revision of these two years' work in this section.

SYLLABUS H.—PROPOSED NEW SYLLABUS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Rural Science.

Part I.

Very simple treatment of the system comprising the Sun, Moon, Earth and other planets. Matter as solid, liquid.

Air: its reality and distribution; (and gas) weight; the part air (the third form of matter) plays in the burning of a candle and of a fire, effect of heat on air, movement of air, the principle gases of the air.

Water: Solution, evaporation, condensation, melting, boiling, steam. The chief uses of water in plant and animal life, sources of water, purification of water, filtration. Rain, mist, vapour, dew, frost, ice, snow, hail, expansion of water. The Thermometer; the Barometer.

Soil: simple treatment of origin and formation of the soil, air and water in the soil, living organism in the soil, soluble matter, vegetable and mineral matter in the soil, cultivation of the soil, general characters of different types of soil of the district. Simple experiments with sand, clay and bog or loam to illustrate their characteristics.

Manure, what it means and why it is applied to the soil.

Plant Life: general germination of a typical plant (providing a specimen for each pupil). General structure and functions of roots, stem, leaf, bud and flower.

Conditions necessary for normal developments of plant life.

Seed: Structure and functions of fruit and seeds; natural devices for the scattering of fruits and seeds. Germination of seeds, conditions necessary for germination. Examination of seed samples for purity and life.

Method of food storage in plants.

Simple lessons on phenomena within the pupils' common experience, such as light, heat, sound, clouds, rainbow, thunder and lightning.

Part II.

Matter as solid, liquid and gas. General study of the chief properties of air and water.

Plant life.—General examination of a typical plant (providing a specimen for each pupil).

General structure and functions of roots, stems, leaves and flowers.

Vegetative reproduction of plants, runners, stems, tubers, bulbs and corms as illustrations of vegetative reproduction.

Comparison between cultivated plants and weeds.

Life cycle of annual, biennial and perennial plants.

Study of trees and bushes.

Simple study of fungi and bacteria, bacteria and decay.

Simple discourses on plant diseases and an outline of the general courses of plant diseases.

General inter-relationship between plant and animal life.

Life history of a typical insect. Insects' association with flowers.

General outline of the human body indicating briefly the functions of the principal parts.

Breathing, perspiration, body heat, work and energy, ventilation, clothing.

Food.—Uses of foods in the body, milk as a complete food.

Disease.—Bacteria in relation to disease, anti-septics and disinfectants.

Habits and migration of birds. Hibernation of animals.

How birds assist nature in maintaining "the balance of life" and in the distribution of seed.

Rural Science.

Syllabus of out-door Studies.

Syllabus II.

Cultivation of the soil, action of weather on soil.

General study of the plants of the district observation and study of the general structure, development of roots, stems, leaves, buds, flowers, fruit and seeds, observation of the effect of environment on the distribution, structure and development of plants.

Cultivation in small plots by the pupils of potatoes, cabbages, parsnips, carrots, beet, peas, beans, onions, leeks, turnips, lettuce, radishes.

Planting, propagation and after treatment, in a common fruit plot, of different species of fruit.

Propagation of decorative shrubs in a common plot. The pupils should be encouraged to propagate shrubs and trees for subsequent removal to their own homes.

Raising of forest trees from seed.

Propagation and management of flowers.

Observation and treatment of pests and diseases of plants.

The cardinal points, shadows cast by the sun.

Plan of garden and of pupils' plots (to scale).

NOTE.—The school garden must contain plots for the cultivation of vegetables (a plot $30' \times 10'$ for each group of two pupils), a common fruit plot for fruit trees and shrubs, and herbaceous border, a demonstration plot, a plot for propagating plants by cutting, budding, grafting, etc., decorative shrubs, and a frame for seedlings.

APPENDIX H.

Two popular saving schemes for schools.

The first scheme is worked with coupons of the Swastika design, and a standing imprest of these coupons is maintained by the honorary secretary of the association, the supply coming either from the National Savings Committee or, in certain cases, from the local savings committee of the area in which the association works.

A coupon card is issued to each member, and he receives a coupon for each sixpense subscribed towards the purchase of a Savings Certificate. With the money thus received from the members, the honorary secretary (or the honorary treasurer) buys Savings Certificates at the Post Office. The certificates are bought in blank that is, they are not yet allocated to any particular owner, though they begin to qualify for interest from the date of purchase. When a member has completed his card by the purchase of thirty-two coupons, he is given a Savings Certificate from the stock of certificates that have been bought in the way already indicated. This certificate will, therefore, usually be a pre-dated certificate that is, a certificate which has already begun to qualify for interest when it passes into the member's possession.

The completed cards, each with its thirty-two used coupons, are then returned to the committee which issued them, and new coupons to the value of those returned are sent to the association, which is thus enabled to maintain its standing imprest. Under this scheme, accounts are submitted to an annual inspection.

Another scheme, which is also popular in schools, is worked by means of the Britannia Head savings stamp. Each member of the savings association is given a savings card ruled to hold thirty-two stamps. These Savings Stamps may be purchased at any Money Order Post Office. Members save whatever amount they wish to, and for every sixpense subscribed towards the purchase of a savings certificate, they receive one stamp. (Subscriptions are usually collected weekly).

It should be noted that, as an initial supply, a stock of savings stamps may be obtained on credit from the National Savings Committee. In such a case, the money collected weekly from the members is used to renew the stock by buying more savings stamps at the Post Office.

When thirty-two stamps have been affixed to a card, the member gives it to the honorary secretary who obtains a savings certificate at the Post Office in exchange for this card of thirty-two stamps, representing a saving of 16*s*. (In certain cases, the honorary secretary arranges that the member shall himself take his completed card to the Post Office to exchange it for a certificate).

By the use of the simple device of date-labels, the operation of which is fully explained in the instructions relating to the scheme, the honorary secretary can obtain for his members the advantage of a pre-dated certificate. This advantage is sometimes highly prized by members, and for that reason, many honorary secretaries consider the use of date-labels desirable in working this scheme.

A formal audit is not required under this scheme, but the credit stock of stamps is subject to inspection from time to time.

APPENDIX I.

Oxfordshire Rural Community Council.

Annual Report, 1925-26.

In this, the first Annual Report of the reconstituted Oxfordshire Rural Community Council, it may be worth while, by way of preface, to outline the origin of the Council and its development up to the present day.

In 1920 certain societies which were working in Oxfordshire villages decided to meet together and see if by pooling resources as far as possible, and co-operating in practical ways, they could not both become more efficient and run more economically. From the outset it was felt that if anything were to be attempted for the county as a whole it should be done with the full knowledge and approval of the county authorities, and at a very early date the Directors of Education and of Agriculture were invited, in their personal capacity, to join the informal committee, which consisted of representatives of the Women's Institutes, the Village Clubs Association, the Red Triangle Federation, the Workers' Educational Association, the University Tutorial Classes Committee, Barnett House, and certain individuals specially interested in village life.

For the first few years the work of this Rural Community Committee was almost wholly educational. Villages wanted lectures and classes and books, and found the cost of getting them prohibitive. By combination and co-operation the societies represented on the Rural Community Committee succeeded to some extent in meeting the demand. Thanks to the generosity of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the Horace Plunkett Foundation they were able to purchase a motor-car, now supplemented by a motor van, which has enabled lecturers, cinema shows, concert and dramatic parties, to be taken out to the villages at a cost which they can meet. Moreover for two years the Committee financed and organised a voluntary Rural Libraries Scheme. That the work done in these directions was of value is sufficiently proved by the fact that the Rural Libraries Scheme has been taken over and placed on a permanent basis by the County Council, and the systematic lectures have been taken over by the University Delegacy for Extra-mural Studies, who have—for the first time—appointed a Resident Tutor for the counties of Oxon, Berks, and Bucks, with the hope of extending to the surrounding villages some of the advantages of the University.

The mere working together has shown many other ways in which help might be given to villages if the driving power and enthusiasm of voluntary societies is linked to the power of the statutory authorities. We all know that the fullest advantage has not always been taken of facilities offered by the County Council, and that country men and women sometimes waste money and effort in failing to get what they need because they are unaware of this or that method of obtaining it. The machinery of the O. R. C. C. puts it, through the constituent societies in touch with a very large number of men and women of all classes throughout the country, and enables it to distribute such leaflets and pamphlets as those it has issued on Scholarships for Oxfordshire Children. on the Public Health Services of the County, on Village Libraries.

About a year ago the Rural Community Committee felt that the time had come to reconstitute itself on a wider basis, and at a public meeting called by Mr. Ashhurst, Chairman of the County Council, in the County Hall on February 25, 1925, it was resolved to adopt the present constitution, replacing the old Committee by a Council representative of wider interests. This Council is divided into five Groups and the reports of their activities during this, the first year of their existence, follows. The Groups are linked together by a General Purposes Committee, on which serve the Officers of the Council, the Chairman and Secretary and two other representatives of each Group, and representatives from other rural organisations. The General Purposes Committee also controls the finance of the whole Council.

It takes time for any such movement to establish itself, but Oxfordshire may perhaps feel some pride in the fact that it was the first county to set up a Rural Community Council and that its example has now been followed by Kent, Cambridgeshire, West Sussex, Gloucestershire, Hertfordshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Somerest, and Hampshire, and that other counties are considering their establishment.

The Statement of Accounts and Balance Sheet are printed separately. It will be seen that hitherto money has been raised by grants, by subscriptions

from constituent societies, and by gifts from individuals. If the work is to be permanent it must be a genuine county movement not one dependent on sources of income from outside, and there is every promise that this will be the case in Oxfordshire. It is hoped that grants for specific purposes may continue to be forthcoming from public bodies. Constituent societies are giving as generously as they can, and this source of income is most important as showing that the societies concerned find the Council of real help to them. Donations are also hoped for in the future, as they have been received in the past, from individuals interested in the welfare of the county, and in this experiment in particular. At the moment the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees are looking to the Councils already established to see what promise of permanence there is in the work, and the response made by these existing Councils is likely to have considerable influence on the movement as a whole.

Education Group.

The Group has met four times.

The following reports have been received from the bodies engaged in Adult Education in Oxfordshire. They show that provision is made for the different requirements of the villages, which include single lectures of an elementary kind, short courses of lectures, terminal courses, and tutorial classes. Craft, technical, and non-vocational work is being done by one or other of the societies, and the following summary shows the extent to which these interests are developed in the county.

The University Delegacy for Extra-mural Studies, through a Joint Standing Committee, co-operates with the W. E. A. and its affiliated societies for the purpose of furthering Adult Education in the county. It has provided and maintained the teaching of all Red Triangle Federation classes, and of those organised directly under the W. E. A. It has also assisted in the local organisation of unaffiliated classes, as well as supplying the teaching required by them.

The Workers' Educational Association has three classes, two in History and one in Economics, one being a Tutorial Class.

The Red Triangle Federation, which is affiliated to the Southern District of the W. E. A., has organised twelve classes, one in Psychology, two in Citizenship, two in Economics, three in English Social History, and four in the History of Exploration. There are two other classes in History and one in Citizenship, unaffiliated. Twenty miscellaneous lectures have also been given in different villages.

The Oxfordshire Federation of Women's Institutes has had five classes in Dressmaking, seven in Glovemaking, four in Needlework, three in Millinery, three in Home Nursing, one in Toy-making, twelve in Upholstery, and one short course each in Health, Poultry-keeping, Aspects of Women's Work, and Medieval History.

Two courses of lectures on Handicrafts for Teachers were held at Barnett House, Oxford. Two hundred miscellaneous lectures have been given by lecturers sent from Barnett House.

Oxfordshire County Council (Handicrafts).—Six courses (70 lectures) have been given to teachers of Handwork in the County.

County Union of Village Clubs.—Thirty miscellaneous lectures have been delivered under County Union auspices, and a further twenty-three are arranged to take place by March 31, 1926.

Summary, April, 1925, to March, 1926.—Courses of Lectures, 64. Single Lectures, 273.

Health Group.

The Group has met twice, and its Sub-Committees five times.

Report on Health Services in Oxfordshire.—During 1925 the activities of the Group have been almost entirely concentrated on the compilation of a report on existing Health Services in Oxfordshire. In this work the Group had the invaluable co-operation of Mr. S. P. Grundy (Honorary Secretary of the National Council of Social Service). Mr. Grundy's unique experience of social organisation administration, combined with the general readiness of local authorities and voluntary agencies to supply information as to their activities, has enabled the Group to produce a Report which is remarkably complete, and should prove of considerable value to all concerned in the administration of Local Health Services.

The Report has received very favourable notice in both the National and the Local Press. The publication of the Report has already stimulated at least two other counties to undertake a similar inquiry.

Disposal of Rubbish.—The Group has, on the suggestion of the County Federation of Women's Institutes, instituted an inquiry into existing parochial or district arrangements for the disposal of rubbish in villages. When the full information is available the Group proposes to consider how far such arrangements can be extended either by official action or voluntary effort.

Dental Treatment.—The Approved Societies associated with the Group have co-operated in an effort to disseminate information as to the care of the Teeth and the provision of Dental Treatment.

The Education Group of the Oxfordshire Rural Community Council and the County Federation of Women's Institutes have also distributed leaflets issued by the Dental Board, or arranged lectures on dental questions.

County Health Week.—A Special Sub-Committee of the Group has been appointed for the purpose of considering the desirability of forming Village Health Groups and of promoting a County Health Week.

Books dealing with Health Questions.—The Group has recommended the County Libraries Sub-Committee to provide books dealing with Diet, Infant Welfare, and other Health questions.

Lecturers.—A list of lecturers on Health questions, who are available for lectures in Oxfordshire, is being compiled by the Group.

JUVENILE GROUP.

The Group has met four times.

Juvenile Organisations Committee for the County.—The most important result of formation of the Group is that it has been recognised by the Board of Education as the official Juvenile Organisations Committee for the County. To quote the Board's Report for 1925:—

> "*Oxfordshire.*—The problem of the adolescent, and particularly of the boy between 14 and 18, is a matter of serious concern to all who are interested in rural development. Generally speaking, in the majority of villages very little is done for the social and recreative life of boys of this age. They are too young for admission to the men's clubs, and in any one village the number of boys is often too small to make it possible to organise successfully a scout troop or a boys' club on the usual lines.
>
> An interesting suggestion has recently been put forward in the county of Oxford for doing something for boy life in the villages of the county, and it is proposed to organise a County Juvenile Organisations Committee under the auspices of the Oxfordshire Rural Community Council. The Rural Community Council, which is in touch with practically all the voluntary organisations operating in the county, such as Women's Institutes, Red Triangle Federation, Village Clubs Association, W. E. A., etc., offers suitable machinery for covering the county as a whole.
>
> It is proposed to secure representatives on the Committee of the Council for other bodies specially interested in juveniles, and the experiment which is about to be started in Oxfordshire will no doubt be watched with interest by other County Authorities and voluntary workers in rural areas generally."

It will be noted that this was the first attempt to form a joint committee of this sort for a country area, although similar bodies have been at work in towns. Now Gloucestershire and Kent are also undertaking work for juveniles.

Official recognition makes the Group eligible for a grant from the special fund set aside for juveniles, and the Juvenile Group has obtained £100 for such work. At a special meeting called to consider the best method for using this money, it was decided to try certain definite experiments under the auspices of the following societies:—

The Boy Scouts,
The Girl Guides,
The Church Lads' Brigade,
The Oxfordshire Red Triangle Federation,

The Country Union of Village Clubs,

and to review the position at the end of three months, *i.e.*, at Easter, 1926.

Activities of Constituent Societies.—Among the activities of the Societies represented on this Group may be mentioned the formation of a new Local Association of Boy Scouts for the Charlbury District, and the proposed extension of the North Chiltern District to include the Haseley District. Thirteen new Troops have been registered and five disbanded. Seven Packs have been registered and three disbanded.

The Red Triangle Federation has formed two boys' clubs and reports an urgent need for more.

All the organisations concerned are held up for want of workers. Are there no young men and women belonging to Old Boys' and Girls' Associations of the Secondary Schools in the County who would help in work among boys and girls?

Young Farmers' Clubs.—Tentative inquiries are also being made into the possibilities of starting Young Farmers' Clubs.

Rural Industries Group.

The Group has met twice.

The activity of the Rural Industries Sub-Committee of the Agricultural Committee of the County Council covers much of the ground which in other counties, where the statutory Rural Industries Committee has been allowed to lapse, is left to the Rural Community Council.

Inquiry into Rural Migration.—The Group is, however, in close touch with this Rural Industries Sub-Committee, under whose auspices an inquiry into rural migration is at present being carried out.

Agricultural Apprenticeship Scheme.—The Group is also inquiring into the scheme for agricultural apprenticeship which is being prepared by the Kent Rural Community Council.

Social and Recreational Group.

The Group has met three times.

In order to get the Group in touch with other Groups of the Oxfordshire Rural Community Council, it was decided that the Secretaries of other Groups should receive copies of the Minutes, and should have a standing invitation to attend the meetings of this Group.

Village Hall Loan Fund.—In order to test the need for Village Halls, the Development Commissioners set aside a sum of money for loans, free of interest, to villagers desiring to build or extend Village Halls. Certain counties, of which Oxfordshire is one, were entrusted with a limited sum to enable them to experiment in this direction. The Social and Recreational Group has been given the administration of this loan fund. One loan has already been made, and others are under consideration. No small part of the interest and value of the experiment lies in the collection of information as to plans and Trust Deeds, and the possibility of placing this information at the disposal of villages needing halls.

Music Sub-Committee.—The Music Sub-Committee arranged a School for Village Conductors on February 27th, under the leadership of Major Bavin.

Drama Sub-Committee.—This Committee is giving great assistance to the Women's Institutes in the production of their Pageant on July 1. It has been successful in finding helpers of many kinds, and it is hoped that its efforts may result in systematic assistance for village producers.

Entertainments organised in villagers, April 1925 to March 1926.—22 Cinema: 16 in R. T. F. centres, 5 in W. I., and 1 in C. U. 13 Concerts and Entertainments. 4 Juvenile Lectures. 23 Lantern Lectures. 45 Performances by the Oxfordshire Players.

Village Community Councils.—The Group recommended that Group Conferences should be arranged in Oxfordshire for the discussion of the place of Village Community Councils in the social life of the County, and movement is being made in this direction. Here again Oxfordshire was one of the pioneer counties, and the experiment which proved so successful at Wheatley is being tried in other counties.

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